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ABSTRACT

"The State of the Art" is a bibliographical essay current to 1975 consisting of 300 items relating to home-school-community relations. This literature was examined in order to (1) provide a conceptual framework for home-school-community relations, (2) develop a classification scheme for existing theory and practice, and (3) suggest further research in home-school-community relations. The literature of home-school-community relations suggests three distinct conceptual classifications: (1) home-school-community relations as an administrative function, (2) home-school-community relations as public participation, and (3) home-school-community relations as a political process. Each of these typologies is described in terms of objectives, programs and activities, underlying theoretical foundations, and the results of related research. The literature review concludes with a set of implications for model building, research, the improvement of home-school-community relations programs and practices, and the development of teacher/administrator training programs for home-school-community relations. (Author)

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Theoretical Paper No. 61

Home-School-Community Relations: The State of the Art

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Theoretical Paper No. 61

HOME-SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS: THE STATE OF THE ART

by

Jin Eun Kim, Marvin J. Fruth, and B. Dean Bowles

Report from the Project on
Organization for Instruction and
Administrative Arrangements

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It is the hope of the researchers in the Home-School-Community Relations Project that this State of the Art paper, in addition to the Case Studies on IGE implementation, and other theoretical and practical papers will help initiate a dialogue with other researchers and practitioners in order to improve home-school-community relations.

Marvin J. Fruth
B. Dean Bowles
December 1976

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ABSTRACT

"The State of the Art" is a bibliographical essay current to 1975 consisting of 300 items relating to home-school-community relations. This literature was examined in order to (1) provide a conceptual framework for home-school-community relations, (2) develop a classification scheme for existing theory and practice, and (3) suggest further research in home-school-community relations. The literature of home-school-community relations suggests three distinct conceptual classifications: (1) home-school-community relations as an administrative function, (2) home-school-community relations as public participation, and (3) home-school-community relations as a political process. Each of these typologies is described in terms of objectives, programs and activities, underlying theoretical foundations, and the results of related research. The literature review concludes with a set of implications for model building, research, the improvement of home-school-community relations programs and practices, and the development of teacher/administrator training programs for home-school-community relations.

I

INTRODUCTION

This state of the art paper is a report from the Home-School-Community Relations Project being conducted at the Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning. The purposes of the project are (1) to review the related literature, (2) to develop the home-school-community relations model for Individually Guided Education (IGE), (3) to conduct research and studies, (4) to develop practical programs and packages useful to the school system, and (5) to disseminate project products to the people responsible for conducting home-school-community relations programs and activities. In order to accomplish the first purpose, a computer-based libfile was developed. The major sources of literature reviewed in this document are from the libfile.

The objectives of this paper are (1) to define home-school-community relations, (2) to develop a classification scheme for existing home-school-community relations programs, and (3) to suggest implications for further development of home-school-community relations programs. Three distinct concepts of home-school-community relations are posited: an administrative function, parent participation, and a political process. These concepts, expanded to general functional, participatory, and political frameworks, provide the base for drawing three major approaches to the improvement of home-school-community relations. These approaches will be described with particular emphasis given to the following four questions:

1. What are the objectives of the approach?
2. What programs or activities are developed within the approach?
3. What are the theoretical foundations underlying the approach?
4. What are the results of research and studies on the program within the approach?

Finally, this paper suggests some implications for building a model for home-school-community relations, conducting further research studies, improving home-school-community relations practices, and developing teacher/administrator training programs for home-school-community relations. It closes with conclusions drawn from the text.

II

DEVELOPMENT OF HOME-SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

CONCEPTS OF HOME-SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

An operational definition of home-school-community relations includes an administrative function, public participation in school affairs, and a political process. These concepts, expanded with functional, participatory, and political perspectives, yield three major approaches to the improvement of home-school-community relations.

An Operational Definition

The existence of school-community relations or home-school relations can be traced far back into the history of schooling. In a dynamic society, where schooling is important in the process of social change, home-school-community relationships are recognized as having an especially important role in relating education to that society. From a philosophical perspective, Pounds and Bryner (1967) present several alternative ways of viewing the nature of schooling and the school-society relationship. These include humanism, social revolutionism, social realism, experimentalism, reconstructionism, educational laissez-faire, existentialism, and eclecticism. These often conflicting philosophical points of view raise a crucial issue: Should the school attempt to determine social interests and adapt its educational program to serve them or should it strive to alter the interests of society with respect to education?

The school-society relationship has also been analyzed with regard to the expectations which members of society have for the school. Goslin (1965) identifies three general functions of the school in a modern society: transmitting the culture, supporting the discovery of new knowledge, and allocating individuals to positions in society. Focusing attention on predominant value orientations, Corwin (1965) suggests four ideal types of school-community relationships along the local-cosmopolitan dichotomy. These sociological positions hold that the school must actively shape its own programs to the interests and expectations of the community. Thus, both philosophical and sociological standpoints draw attention to the issue of what role the school should play as changes occur in a society. Accordingly they provide thoughtful insights into developing educational programs which cope with social change, but they are far from providing an operational definition of home-school-community relations which deal with the empirical reality.

Home-school-community relations can be operationally defined as a concept connoting reciprocal relations or interactions between school and community or school and home, rather than a concept implying the role or functions of the school in a changing society. The ultimate goal of the reciprocal relations is to identify and achieve common goals for better education contributing toward individual and community development. The basic means to reach this goal may be characterized as cooperative or competitive. In a relatively stable, homogeneous society, there is little controversy surrounding the tasks and functions of the school. This leads to cooperative "give-and-take" relations between school and community. Consequently, parents enjoy supporting the school system, which provides their children with the basic skills, knowledge, and values regarded as positive. On the other hand, a society pervaded by rapid change or faced with social crisis produces conflicting ideas and beliefs about the school's role, which in turn leads to conflicting demands upon the school. Unless the contrasting demands or conflicts are resolved, the relationship becomes competitive and the school is forced to respond to criticisms and challenges from outside. A dynamic approach to the improvement of home-school-community relations is then needed.

From an organizational perspective, as Howard (1963) points out, the base of school-community relations starts with harmony between the principal and members of the school staff. However, attention must be directed toward interaction between the school and its community. Viewing the school as an "open system," as defined by Katz and Kahn (1967), the organizational interdependence between it and its environment is as significant as the frequency and content of interaction among the organizational members, because the characteristics of the environment determine the framework within which the interactive system exists (Hass & Dralek, 1973). From the view of the community as a dynamic set of interacting subsystems linked to the wider society, concepts of horizontal and vertical links are employed in describing the interaction (Warren, 1963). Against the traditional geopolitical-horizontal view of the community and schools, McGivney and Moynihan (1972) conceptualize a school-community interface that views the school and community not only as an interactive system at the local level (horizontal), but also as a subsystem of an extra-community macro-system (vertical).

Thus, the concept of home-school-community relations encompasses a variety of philosophical, sociological, and organizational contexts and can be conceptualized as reciprocal relations between school and community, home and school, or home, school, and community, externally as well as internally, and in both horizontal and vertical dimensions.

School-Community Relations: An Administrative Function

School-community relations is defined in terms of information disbursing procedures and an administrative function which includes public relations and communication with the community. The concept "community" involves parents and other members of the public concerned with school education.

School Public Relations. School-community relations started with public relations viewed as a function of the administrator. Public relations in education has been referred to as "educational publicity" (Alexander, 1928), and "educational interpretation" (Walch, 1956). Even though "a two-way flow of ideas" (AASA, 1950, p. 13), or a "two-way interpretive process" (Hoehlman & van Zwoll, 1957, p. 152) is emphasized, public relations has also some connotations of campaigning, propagandizing, pressuring, advertising, and so on. It provides factual information designed to keep the people informed of the objectives, conditions, and needs of their schools. Charters (1969) refers to public relations in a formal sense as:

> Those functions of an educational organization concerned with communicating to the public, or distinct segments of the public, regarding the organization's programs, policies, services, and the like, with the deliberate intent of creating or maintaining favorable public attitudes toward the organization [p. 1028].

Such a school public relations program is considered crucial to the success of any work done by an educational institution (Shaw, 1962), as essential to school administration as are instruction, pupil services, and other programs (Williamson, 1969). Viewing school public relations as school-community information services, Stackig (1966) confines it to becoming (1) an administrative tool, (2) a reflection of educational leadership, (3) a social force, and (4) a planned program.

School-Community Communication. Communications, from face-to-face conversation through mass communication, are an important aspect of school-community relations. Kindred (1957) refers to the school's community relations programs as direct and indirect forms of personal contact with the public outside of the school which are important in shaping popular attitudes and opinions toward the institution and its personnel. School communications, internal as well as external, are emphasized as a tool for advancing educational goals, not as an end unto itself (Stackig, 1966, p. 7). Wendorf (1963) describes "kaffee klatsches" in which administrators talk informally and discuss subjects with small groups of parents. Communication about schools is assumed to be informal in two very specific senses: What people say about the school is generally outside the formal decision-making process and it is not a disciplined examination of educational values (Carter, Greenbery, & Haimson, 1966). Assuming that pertinent decisions must be based on sound principles of two-way communication, Atkinson (1971) offers six guidelines for the school administrator who wishes to understand the communications process and plot a course of action:

1. Decisions should be based on the understanding of the community.
2. Communication activities should involve many individuals.
3. Knowledge of the social and behavioral sciences is helpful.
4. Messages should reach the desired audience and arouse intended responses.
5. Impact is influenced by the attention received, where it came from, and what action is proposed.
6. The outcome is measured by the tenor of the feedback obtained.

Bowles and Fruth (1976) discuss several aspects of communication which are of interest and importance to school administrators in an effective school-community relations program. They emphasize that school administrators ought to be aware of the factors which contribute to effective communication and plan for utilization of these fa tors when communicating with parents and other members of the public in the school community. These factors are one-way/two-way communication, communication styles, vehicles for communication, conditions necessary for effective communication, and the quality of the message.

Public Understanding and Support. Sestak and Frerich (1968) contend that school-community relations have two main functions: to raise the level of public understanding through information programs, and to enlist community support by drawing citizens into meaningful participation in school affairs. (1) the education board's legal and ethical accountability to the public, (2) the public school's dependence upon the understanding, interest, and confidence of the people, and (3) cooperation by all the elements of a community for the best education of children. More comprehensively, and with a view of school-community relations based on the concept of the changing school in the changing community, Sumption and Engstrom (1966) provide four essential principles for developing a desirable relationship between school and community. They are recognition that the school is a public enterprise; understanding that the American public school has a responsibility to seek out truth and teach people to live by it; realization that there must be systematic, structured, and active citizen participation in educational planning, policy making, problem solving, and evaluation; and recognition that an effective two-way system of communication between school and community is needed.

School-community relations as an administrative function encompass public relations as information services, and school-community communications, ranging from face-to-face conversation to mass media, as being concerned with external, informal, and two-way as well as internal, formal, and one-way communications. As for the school administrator's function in school-community relations, the emphasis is on increasing public understanding and support for education through school public relations and communication programs between school and community.

Home-School Relations: Parent Participation

One view of home-school relations conceptualizes it as parent-teacher communication or parent participation in their children's educational affairs. Hymes (1953, p. 9) refers to home-school relations as "a man made bridge" to link the home and the school, with the goal of bringing about better understanding between parents and teachers of what children are like and what good education is.

Home-School Communication. Communication between home and school, or parent-teacher interaction, is a dynamic aspect of home-school relations. As a vital relationship between home and school, Hymes (1953) suggests written communications, with consideration of three elements:

1. parent's great concern about child-development and their fundamental interest in education;
2. school's relative lack of readiness to work with parents; and
3. young people's new and strong feelings of independence [p. 211].

The pupil is regarded as the "prime agent in the transmission of information about the school to his parents and home [Jones, 1966, p. 63]." For effective home-school relationships, Hunter (1967) contends that "communication is the responsibility of every school--to send home daily, through the medium of the learner, a positive state-of-the-learner message [p. 24]." Trump (1971) emphasizes the importance of face-to-face communication with parents rather than secondary levels of communication such as mass media, written messages, etc. One-way communications are viewed as essential, for example, school-to-home communiques or meetings directed toward interpreting the school program to parents (Beugen et al., 1971). Atkinson (1971), however, emphasizes the need for more two-way communication to close the widening gap between the school and the public.

Parent Participation. With regard to parents' cooperative participation in the classroom, Fitzwater (1974) contends that "good teachers find ways of helping parents to be active partners in the education of their children, and interested parents find opportunities to cooperate with teachers [pp. 75-76]." Furthermore, he emphasizes that "the visits of teachers to the homes of pupils and conferences between parents and teachers are important aspects of the cooperative program [p. 76]."

Assuming that positive relationships between parents and teachers are essential to the operation of good schools and the strengthening of the partnership concept in American education, Kindred (1957) describes the importance of parent relations, the difficulties that may be encountered, and opportunities for their improvement. His partnership concept calls for the free and continuous exchange of information between parents and teachers, and the involvement of parents in school affairs (p. 125). He suggests several opportunities for parent participation in school affairs: study and discussion groups, curriculum planning, contributions to classwork, extracurricular activities, school facilities planning, advisement panels, and community improvement. Turning his attention toward parent-teacher associations, Kindred suggests that a local, voluntary parent-teacher association is one of the best means available for achieving the partnership concept. As Osborne (1959) points out, parent-teacher associations exist to provide an opportunity for members to work together harmoniously for the benefit of the child. Knezevich (1969) views the parent-teacher association as a public leadership agency which is concerned with developing closer relations between home and school, parents and teachers so that they may cooperate intelligently in the child's education. West (1967) emphasizes parent participation stating that: it is the parents' democratic right; parents recognize the importance of education and are concerned about their children's educational progress; the home offers a valuable resource to the school; and a healthy society requires the strengthening of the home.

As reviewed above, home-school relations is viewed as parent participation directed toward the attainment of common goals for children's education, by increasing parent-teacher communication and partnership. It

assumes that parents' participation in school affairs will make their educational expectations and demands for their children more similar to those held by the school.

Home-School-Community Relations: A Political Process

A new concept of home-school-community relations has evolved as a political process for educational change. Home-school-community relations in a political context would be defined as the interaction between the school and the political system in which it functions. The new concept is derived from two major trends influencing public education: a growing interest in analysis and understanding of community power structures, and increasing politicization of education at the local, state, and federal levels.

The concern for identifying community power structures and their impact on educational decisions started in the late 1950's. Following Hunter's (1953) sociological analysis of the community power structure in Atlanta, Georgia, Vidich and Bensman (1968) analyzed school politics in the small rural community of Springdale. Kimbrough (1964) reported on community power structures in two Florida school districts. McCarty (1964) suggests that four types of community power structures, i.e., dominated, factional, pluralistic, and inert, influence an administrator's tenure. However, Dykes (1963) assumes that an effective administrator is able to influence the formal and informal power structures. Further, he emphasizes that the administrator should furnish educational statesmanship by identifying the community leaders, educating the informal leaders to the needs of the schools, and serving as the community's educational leader with professional competence and dedication. To make the institution of education an orderly instrument for progress and change, school board members and professional educators are required to develop a thorough understanding of the nature of power, community power structures, and effective means of dealing with those structures (Hughes, 1967). Thus the analysis and understanding of community power structures is directed toward developing interaction between the school and the political leadership in the community.

The major trend is the emergence of the "politics of education." Against the myth that either "education should not be involved in politics" or "politics should not be in education," Iannaccone (1967) examines political action in education at the local, district, and state levels. Actually, education is increasingly involved in politics because it needs governmental support. Also, research and studies dealing with the politics of education at the local, state, and federal levels support the trend to abandon that traditional political myth in education. Some empirically-based generalizations on the structure, process, and issues of political influence in educational policy making at all levels are summarized by Kirst (1970). In particular, since President Johnson signed the Higher Education Facilities Act (P. L. 88-204, 1963)and authorized the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (P. L. 89-10, 1965), the federal government has moved toward a more active role in shaping educational policies and directions as well as in financing schools. Under such circumstances, the educational system cannot

be separated from the political system in which it is located. Thus the political issues of education require political responses by the schools (AASA, 1970). As Nugent (1964) points out, school boards will grow politically obsolete unless they discover ways to be informed about political decisions which influence the public schools and find ways to express informed opinions before these decisions are made. For the administrator, Nunnery and Kimbrough (1971) state that political interaction on varying levels is necessary to legitimize educational change.

In recent years, community involvement in educational decision making and movement toward community control over public education forced home-school-community relations into a political conjuncture, particularly in urban areas. Broudy (1969) discusses three major confrontations taking place within the educational system: the taxpayers revolt against increased school expenditures, the Black Power movements, and the revolt of college and high school students against their school administrations. In addition to these stresses, an increased dissatisfaction with public education (Lahoda, 1971), and failures in compensatory education and desegregation for minority groups, Fantini (1969) made clear the need for community participation, involvement, and control in educational decision making. Also, the federal government encouraged community involvement in educational planning, implementation, and budgeting by making it prerequisite to receiving funds from the ESEA Title I programs.

Zimmerman (1969) calls attention to specifying the community decision makers by distinguishing between control, involvement, and participation, which are analogous to the ownership of a baseball club, a team player, and a game spectator, respectively. His definitions seem to be valuable for clarifying the community decision maker debate on education. Community participation or involvement is believed to be both desirable and mandatory in solving education's problems (Harris, 1974), in understanding and joining forces in mutual attack on basic educational problems (Cunningham, 1974), in improving community attitudes toward educational support (Hoke et al., 1971), and in making decisions on educational budget, personnel, and instructional development (Snyder, 1974).

However, the movement toward community control over public education accompanied by administrative decentralization, which started in New York City, brought about heated controversy. In 1967, the Mayor's Advisory Panel developed a plan--the Bundy Report--for the decentralization of the New York City school system, and recommended that the school system be reorganized into a federation of 30 to 60 largely autonomous community school districts and a central educational agency (Bundy et al., 1967). After a one-year experiment with three school districts, the New York City Commission on Human Rights (1968) reported the findings of hearings on the demonstration projects. The Commission was concerned with the impact of the projects on the schools and on the community and with any evidence of improved education as a result of decentralization. In addition to discussing the projects in each district, the Commission report stressed the need for safeguards against possible abuses by local governing boards in a decentralized school system. At the same time, the Advisory Committee on Decentralization (1968) examined the progress of three demonstration projects. To achieve administrative decentralization, the Committee recommended that the central board of education plan elections to permit communities

to elect their own local school governing boards; institute learning programs for governing boards and district superintendents; make the governing boards responsible for visiting schools; and delegate to the boards the right to hire and fire district superintendents, consult with district superintendents on every tenure appointment, and approve budgets and curriculum.

As a response to the New York City school decentralization plan, Gittell (1967) argued for clarifying selection procedures for local school boards, ways to appoint the local superintendent, budget questions, development of personnel, and school district boundaries. Later she found some changes in personnel, budget, and curriculum policy in the three demonstration districts, but emphasized that there was no redistribution of power from professionals to the community (1974). Analyzing the New York City experiments, Usdan (1969) drew attention to the decentralization confrontation in Oceanhill-Brownsville that erupted between community groups and the teachers' union. It raised the critical issue of who is to control governmental institutions, the public or the professional? He also presented some possible lessons from the New York City crisis for educational leaders in other big cities.

The concept of community control of schools is distinct from decentralization, because it represents a redistribution of power to the population being served within a school district. Gittell (1974) argues for redistribution of power, for community control over professional control of public education. On the assumption that the distribution of school resources is directly related to the distribution of power, Levin (1969) contends that community control and decentralized schools can improve the financing and effectiveness of inner-city schools. Assuming that community control stresses the possibility of the schools becoming an integral part of the total community, Hagood (1969) proposes community control as a reform measure for redistributing power outside the "educational power complex" to resolve an educational crisis in the "Black City Reservation." Billings (1972) interprets conflict over community control as a "struggle for power between blacks and whites," assuming that through community control, blacks are challenging the power elite who have traditionally controlled decision making in the cities. In a parallel movement, community control by American Indians of their education means that "the mature members of a tribe, through concentrated involvement and consensus decision-making in every aspect of education, will determine the direction and process of schooling in order to reaffirm the social and cultural integrity of that tribal-specific group and to ensure its continuity [Locke, 1974]."

Against these arguments in favor of community control, Ornstein (1973) contends that community control has the potential for doing more harm than good, and that policy making should remain in the hands of the central school board. Selden (1974) states that there is no instance where community control has raised pupil achievement levels. Taking into account the rise of teachers' power and the change in the racial composition of the populations of urban cities, he proposes a new coalition based on mutual respect between the teachers and the community leaders in new urban power. From another point of view, Havighurst (1974) presents the social background influencing the local community control movement (1966-70) and the rise of cultural

pluralism, and discusses the weakness and strength of local community participation in local school affairs, citing the three New York City demonstration projects. Finally, he draws attention to the importance of a balance between local community and other social and political factors.

Aside from the two concepts of the school's interaction with political systems, and community involvement in and/or community control of schools, the politics of home-school-community relations is taken into consideration. Following the definition of politics as the "process of making authoritative decisions for the distribution of values [Easton, 1965]," "the relationship between groups and individuals as they seek to exercise power [Bone, 1965]," or the "attempt to influence public policy [Gregg, 1965]," the school system itself is viewed as a political system. Based on Easton's political systems model, Graynor provides school administrators with an adequate mechanism for processing the powerful diverse demands typical of modern urban societies. According to Moser (1973), the political systems concept provides a useful tool for processing the actual and potential demands for education within the community.

Regarding home-school-community relations, McGivney and Bowles (1972) define politics as the process by which a society (community) allocates (1) its power or the authority to govern and administer, (2) its scarce financial, material, and human resources, and (3) its preference from among competing and often divergent values. Such a political process always accompanies conflicts as a function of the social interation between or within the systems. March and Simon (1967) identify three main classes of conflict: (1) individual conflict in the course of the decision-making process; (2) conflict between individuals and/or groups in an organization; and (3) conflict between groups and organizations. In the actual situation of educational decision making, the school system is facing conflicts derived from power issues, resource allocation, and value differences within or between the school systems and communities. Considering this situation, Bowles and Fruth (1976, p. 168) view home-school-community relations as encompassing two principal functions:

1. The resolution of actual or potential conflict in the school-community and among its various sub-publics, and
2. The allocation through both policy and practice of scarce economic resources, differing social values, and unequal political power for various educational objectives and for the benefit of the various sub-publics.

A number of research and case studies are being done using the concept of home-school-community relations as a political process. They will be discussed later in this paper.

In summary, the political aspects of home-school-community relations are conceptualized by (1) the schools' interaction with political leadership in the local community, state, and nation; (2) community involvement in educational decision making or community control of schools; and (3) the politics or power plays between two political systems: the school system and the community. These distinct concepts are useful in developing comprehensive dynamic home-school-community relations programs for individual schools or local school systems.

PERSPECTIVES OF HOME-SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

The concept of home-school-community relations can be extended horizontally as well as vertically and developed into a dynamic interaction between school and community. Accordingly, home-school-community activities can be characterized as (1) functional, (2) participatory, and (3) political, each leading to a distinct approach to home-school-community relations.

Functional Perspective

The functional perspective views home-school-community relations as an administrative function, with emphasis on information-disbursing. It provides for both one-way and two-way communication between the schools and the publics.

School to Community. As an important function of school administrators or teachers, public relations is essentially "one side of the school-community relationship--the school's effort to influence the community [Charters, 1969, p. 1030]." Such efforts evolved through several distinct phases in the social and political contexts of the community.

Historically, the public relations movement in education had its genesis soon after the turn of the century and came into its own shortly after World War I. The development of the school public relations movement has paralled the rise of parent-teacher organizations, the school survey movement within education, the growth and subsequent professionalization of commercial public relations, the development of public opinion polling, and other social, political, and ideological forces in society outside of education (Charters, 1969). Charters (1960) gives four general kinds of school public relations: (1) attitudinal, (2) cognitive, (3) behavioral, and (4) collective (p. 1076). With regard to American schools' attitudes toward the public, Walch (1956) describes four distinct phases:

1. The "public-be-shunned" period. Teachers and administrators generally held that they knew best what should be done about all educational problems. The only task of parents, as far as educational procedures were concerned, was to observe the compulsory attendance regulations and get their children to school.
2. The "selling the schools through planned publicity campaigns" era. When public tax support was needed for new and better schools, or for more teachers, or for higher teacher salaries, the publicity campaign was applied.
3. The era of "educational interpretation." The schools should be explained to the public in order that the public may join in developing educational policies for the general good of the community.
4. The period of school and community cooperation so that education can make a full contribution to the betterment of the local community. To make the community as a whole to work with you for better schools and a better community, you have to have

> a community willing to participate in such school organizations as the PTA, and a community well enough informed to participate intelligently and wisely. In achieving these goals, good school-community relations, simply called public relations, are very important [pp. 1-2].

Thus, Walch identifies good school-community relations with good public relations, which he feels is necessary for intelligent participation of the community. He views public relations as a field in which superintendents, principals, and teachers should be always alert for good practical suggestions for dealing with the public in the most effective manner.

Calhoun (1965) presents five distinct states in the evolutionary development of school public relations:

1. "town meeting" in which the early American school formed a center around which the social, educational, and cultural life of the community revolved,
2. a "hands off" approach in which school people contended that the administration and establishment of proper relations should be left to those who had training and experience in education,
3. a "selling" approach, in which schools, during the 1930's, regarded public relations as publicity,
4. an "educational interpretation" approach, which regards the task of establishing relations as one originating only within the school itself, and
5. a "cooperative endeavor" approach, which is based upon the philosophy that the problem of establishing desirable relationships between home, school, and community tends to be regarded more and more as a cooperative undertaking toward a common purpose under the leadership of the school.

Community to School. Fusco (1962) focuses on ways in which administrators can strengthen public understanding through community-to-school channels of information. Insisting that "telling the school story is not enough," he emphasizes the other side--listening for greater feedback. Community surveys, as well as person-to-person relations are needed to create two-way communication. Norton (1968) contends that the administrator must know the community and suggests 10 easy lessons to aid the administrator when he or she first enters a community. These include establishing contacts with the school board, the mayor, newspaper editors, club officials, and administrative assistants. Under the main theme of "Know Your Community," Kelly (1968) emphasizes a counter-flow of information and data from the community to the school board in addition to a one-way communication program, so that the board may make decisions and formulate policy in accord with community expectations and needs. Also, he proposes a continuing and systematic program of research and data collection. Swan (1968) criticizes school teachers who know almost nothing about their community or about the most important forces that affect their pupils, and suggests participation in a community study workshop. Through the workshop, teachers become aware of their community, while businessmen and citizens find out what aspects of the community teachers are interested in and what teachers are doing.

Two-Way Direction. In addition to the one-way flow of information in either direction, two-way interaction or communication in home-school-community relations is recognized as not only desirable but necessary. Harmon (1971) emphasizes the development of a cooperative, interactive relationship between the school administrator and the public based on mutual concern for the welfare of the child. In a multiunit school, Bowles and Fruth (1976) conceptualize four primary interactions: those between teacher and child, unit leader/staff and parents, principal/instructional improvement committee and school community, and superintendent/systemwide policy committee and district community. Emphasis is also given to open and clear channels of communication for optimizing the instructional program.

For productive school-community relations, two-way communication between the school and the public is demanded: the public must be given information and the needs of the public must be assessed to provide adequate feedback for future decision making (Atkinson, 1971). Believing that the individual who controls the interstices between physical and sociological entities, controls the destiny of the entire environment, Wayson (1972) contends that the school administrator must be able to control communications and interaction between school and community. Gayfer (1972) discusses ways to improve communications between schools and the public. She suggests: (1) identifying the public with which one wishes to communicate, (2) avoiding jargon, (3) personalizing messages, (4) emphasizing what is happening at the school unit level, where the real action is, (5) having each school formulate its own communications program and appointing a professional communications expert, and allowing him/her to carry out professional communications tasks, (6) holding "work-out" workshop sessions with people in the school system, (7) maintaining a continuous communications program, and (8) explaining constantly what is going on in the school to the students, who will pass it on to the larger public.

As reviewed above, the functional perspective provides three directions for information exchange as a basis for the improvement of home-school-community relations: (1) school-to-community, (2) community-to-school, and (3) the more dynamic, interaction or communication between the school and the public.

Participatory Perspective

Participatory behavior could be essentially "political" in nature; however, the participatory perspective of home-school-community relations in this paper differs from the political perspective which is directed toward power and control concepts in public education. Participatory activities in home-school-community relations vary according to the scope and intensity of participation in school affairs in general. Organizationally, the pattern of participation is different at the classroom, individual school, and school district levels. Parent participation is the main thrust at the classroom or the individual school level, while citizen participation or community-wide participation is most common at the school district level.

Parent Participation. Parent participation is emphasized as a key to increasing parents' understanding of such ideas as the following: that children are different; that how and when a child learns are individual matters; that children are the focus of the school curriculum; that learning to learn is necessary to becoming an educated person; that seeing a purpose in learning produces more effective and lasting motivation; and that evaluation goes beyond test scores and grades (Dunfee, 1964). Pellegrino (1973) assumes that parent participation in the educational enterprise will lead to a greater awareness of the community on the part of professional educators and an understanding and support for educational objectives on the part of the community. He foresees greater participation of parents in the future, not as an end in itself but as a necessary means to fulfilling educational objectives. Conant (1971) argues that schools must take steps to involve parents more deeply in an educational partnership. She contends that parent involvement in schools brings many opportunities and benefits to the classroom and to the home, i.e., parents working as volunteers in the schools learn about what the school is teaching and why; teachers fulfill their roles more fully by making their educational expertise available to a crucially interested party; and children see their parents in new and positive roles, and gain tangible evidence of their parents' interest in them and in their school. Also, part time volunteers are imperative for individualization of instruction and evaluation of pupils in the schools (Wormsbecker, 1970).

In addition to voluntary participation an organized framework of parent participation has been proven necessary. Fusco (1967) draws attention to vitalizing parent-teacher groups by influencing the choice of effective leaders, by encouraging the adoption of sound objectives, by helping to develop balanced programming, and by teaching techniques of planning to the groups. The PTA, as an example of an organized group, facilitates communication, understanding, and planning for more effective schools (Essex, 1970). Furthermore, in a successful home-school program, the Parent Advisory Council improves parent leadership and education and communication with parents (Murray, 1974).

Citizen and Lay Participation. Citizen and lay participation (in a broader sense than parent participation) can be utilized in studying curriculum problems (Littrell, 1961) and in developing designs for new school buildings (Johnson & Rioux, 1961). Campbell and Ramseyer (1955) regard citizen participation in public education as necessary to school-community relationships. They distinguish between the role of the lay citizen whose obligation is to get involved in the "what is to be taught," and the role of the professional dealing with the "how." They provide 10 principles for citizens and school personnel working together. Terwilliger (1963) assumes that the combination of an effective community relations program and an effective method of citizen participation in school affairs has made it possible to avoid crises in many schools. He emphasizes that the school administrator should furnish leadership in the development of a lay citizens' advisory committee. Lay advisory committees are organized to advise school administrators and to guide local boards in providing the two-way communication between the school and the community which is essential to all educational programs (Gromacki, 1966). Effective citizens' committees may also be advantageous to school districts in dispelling public apathy, investigating educational problems, increasing community understanding and support for educational projects, and creating good will and mutual esteem between the community and schools (Muniz, 1969).

Roaden (1969) classifies citizen participation in school affairs by participation level and source of initiation: (1) citizen-initiated local school citizen participation; (2) school-initiated local school citizen participation; (3) citizen-initiated school system-wide citizen participation; and (4) school-initiated school system-wide citizen participation. Also, the degree of effectiveness of citizen participatory mechanisms is discussed in two ways--how influential the mechanism is for effecting school policies and school operating decisions, and how stable the mechanism is for sustaining influence. Based on the assumption that citizen pressure for an expanded role in school affairs will continue, Cunningham and Nystrand (1969) make the following recommendations:

1. New forms of citizen participation should be encouraged to promote educational accountability to the public.
2. Communities must find new approaches to leadership development, especially for education.
3. School systems must establish and refine new linkages to other sources of strength within their communities.
4. Existing structures for citizen participation must be strengthened.
5. Leadership and sanctioning agencies should encourage citizen participation in school affairs.

Community Participation. Community participation, including not only lay persons, but also professionals from universities and other community organizations, has proved effective in planning school facilities (Stoneman, 1960), in studying curriculum problems, and in preparing bond issues and helping to get them passed (Bryant, 1968). To really understand the purposes, policies, and problems of any school or school system, Dickman (1962) contends that the community must participate directly and/or indirectly in the institution's activities. Community involvement, as an "educational game," is assumed to have four purposes that members of the community are seeking to serve through participation: to develop community understanding and support of educational objectives, to supplement efforts of the school staff in education, to articulate citizen expectations, and to insist upon accountability for educational objectives (Cunningham, 1970). Thus public participation in school affairs has broadened in scope from voluntary parent partnership, through citizen or lay participation, to the involvement of members of the community at large.

The intensity of involvement is another dimension of the participatory perspective. Viewing public participation as developmental in nature, Campbell and Ramseyer (1955) posit five degrees of participation: (1) indifference--there is little or no public participation in public education, (2) sporadic publicity--public participation is largely limited to listening, (3) public approval of plans and programs--it is essentially a one-way relationship, but much more comprehensive than degree (2), (4) public thinking about school problems distinguished from other community problems--public participation becomes more extensive and more significant, and (5) public participation for community improvement--the school is looked upon as one of a family of agencies. Arnstein (1969) assumes that "citizen participation is citizen power," and provides a ladder of citizen participation. The typology consists of eight rungs: manipulation, therapy,

informing, consultation, placation, partnership, delegated power, and citizen control. They are arranged on a ladder with each rung corresponding to an increased degree of citizen power in determining plans and/or programs. Although the eight-rung ladder is derived from three federal social programs--urban renewal, anti-property, and Model Cities--the typology is useful in analyzing the increasingly strident demands for citizen participation in education.

Referring to the broader relationship between the school and the community, Fantini (1974) categorizes new facits of participation for (1) public relations, (2) instructional support, (3) crisis resolution, (4) school governance and institutional reform, (5) application of legal resources to educational problem solving, and (6) participation through citizen consumer lobbies for education. In particular, participation in educational reform is emphasized as a political means toward educational ends, but not the reverse. Also, direct participation by each citizen in making decisions concerning his education is strongly preferred to conventional representative participation.

Thus, the participatory perspective provides the two dimensions of scope and intensity of public participation in school affairs to the improvement of home-school-community relations.

Political Perspective

The political perspective of home-school-community relations is based on the theme of who controls public education. Historically, the control of American education has developed three distinctive stages: local-lay control, bureaucratic-professional control, and community control. Tyack (1972) provides an anecdotal history of local-lay control in the one-room rural school house. He discusses local-lay control of rural schools during the 19th century, bureaucratized professional control of schools beginning in the 1890's and gaining momentum in the early 20th century, and finally the movement toward decentralization and community control in urban areas. With regard to the history of urban school reform, Cronin (1973) distinguishes six phases in the development of the city school board as a governance structure: the beginning of centralization, 1850-1890; the reorganization movement, 1890-1900; the era of efficiency, 1900-1920; stabilization governance, 1920-1944; curbing the power of the mayor, 1945-1961; and returning control to the community.

Local-Lay Control. From its beginnings in the small towns of New England to the present, throughout the nation public education has been governed by local school boards. Local control of education arose because in the beginning money for schools came almost entirely from local property taxes. According to Tyack (1972), "during the 19th century the country school belonged to the community in more than a legal sense: it was frequently the focus for their lives outside the home [p. 5]." The schoolhouse was very much a center of the spread-out community, and the rural "tribe" maintained strict control over curriculum policy. Local-lay control of rural common

education was criticized for creating a poorly educated rural population, while at the turn of the century the metropolitan areas became increasingly modern. Tyack indicates that the basic problem with rural education was that rural folk wanted to run their schools without knowing what was good for them in a complex new society (p. 12). Berger (1972) cites "the heritage of community control of schools and the use of schools as social centers [p. 310]," and traces the antecedents of current trends toward community control of schools back to the 1920's rural movement toward consolidation of schools.

During the nineteenth century, according to Cronin (1973), "school boards reflected neighborhood and community power on a district or ward basis. Laymen ran the schools the way they wanted to run them, delegating to schoolmen only the more esoteric problems of curriculum and supervision. Most personnel, maintenance, and business matters were handled by lay boards without professional consultation [pp. 9-10]." By the early 1900's, however, immigrants and their children comprised the majority of most city populations, and the indigenous groups could not retain control of city schools if the school boards were elected at the ward level. Therefore, most of the older cities abolished ward or community school boards and transferred their powers to central boards.

Bureaucratic-Professional Control. At the turn of the century, educational reformers attacked the "Rural School Problem"--the bookish curriculum, haphazard selection and supervision of teachers, voluntary character of school attendance, discipline problems, and diversity of buildings and equipment (Tyack, 1972). It was also argued that "a community-dominated and essentially provincial form of education would no longer equip youth to deal with the changed demands of agriculture itself or with the complex nature of citizenship in a technological, urban society [Tyack, 1972, p. 4]." As schoolmen pioneered new bureaucratic patterns of educational organization in the cities, so was rural education transformed into a consolidated and bureaucratized institution. This organizational revolution reflected "the movement to take control of the rural common school away from the local community and to turn it over to the professionals [p. 16]." Hence rural as well as urban educators achieved more autonomy for professionals to run the educational systems, claiming to "take the schools out of politics."

School boards were both centralized and professionalized; the size of the boards was usually reduced because they transferred some of their functions to school officials. In cities, these changes meant "placing a number of significant decisions out of the reach of ward politicians and into the hands of those who presumably cared more about pupils than patronage [Cronin, 1973, p. 10]." After the network of "uncentralized" neighborhood boards was denounced in 1925, city school governmental arrangement remained stable for a thirty-year period (Cronin, 1973). As the educational organizations expanded and the number of teachers, administrators, specialists, and maintenance personnel increased, school systems became more bureaucratic. There evolved lines of responsibilities, rules, hierarchical arrangements, and standard specialized procedures (Selden, 1974). Thus a rising professional and bureaucratic organizational structure shaped administrative and policy-making aspects of the school.

Community Control. The 1960's brought increased pressure for school district "decentralization" and community control of schools through replacement of city-wide or bureaucratized professional control. The notions of decentralization and community control differ both in degree and in kind. Whereas decentralization technically refers to an administrative device, community control is considered a political concept (Cronin, 1973). The community control concept is used by different people to mean very different things. Harlem parents originally wanted an integrated intermediate school with a high-quality program (Cronin, 1973, p. 185), the Boston New Urban League, on the other hand, in 1969 defined community control of schools by the following statements: Community organizations must be set up with a cross section of people from the black community--parents, professionals, teachers, ministers, and interested persons who live in the community. These organizations must move to gain total control over the operation of the schools, including expenditure of monies. . . . These school-community organizations must also have control over principal and teacher accountability.

As early as 1966, Jencks (1966) outlined a system giving educators complete freedom to establish any kind of schools and giving parents and students absolute freedom to choose among these schools as they see fit, based on the assumption that a radical change in American education at all levels must begin with the question of control. Koerner (1968) questions both the authority and validity of powers of education professionals and argues for experts executing rather than determining decisions that should be made by the public.

Another line of argument for community control focuses on the black community. As important and visible urban institutions, according to Billings (1972), the schools are the focus of black peoples' drive for increased political power in the inner-city. He criticizes the segregational philosophies and actions of the whites who are fleeing the cities as the blacks move in, and calls the suburbs "bastions of racism." Summarizing a Brookings Institution conference discussion, Levin (1970) states:

> The black American views community control as a way of improving and broadening the educational performance of ghetto schools and of improving the status of black citizens. In addition, many blacks feel that community support for running the schools will provide the nucleus for a community power base; and it is believed that strong and cohesive black communities are the most effective strategy for obtaining an equitable share of power in the larger society [pp. 281-282].

In contrast to earlier developments in educational governance, many reformers call for community control of schools which have especially failed in educating the children of the poor. Berube (1968) argues that locally controlled schools will result in the improvement of children's self-images and teachers' attitudes and expectations, as well as yielding administrative advantages.

From an analysis of historical and empirical data on city school boards, Cronin (1973) concludes that:

> the decentralized and community control boards in fact do run a risk of patronage as newly arrived ethnic groups acquire the chance to handle funds and make personnel appointemnts. . . . Thus, one can predict a period of experimentation with community control followed by a series of scandals. The inevitable reform will very likely include "recentralization" of some personnel functions and adoption of tighter financial accounting procedures [p. 245].

In response to a common feeling of impotence amid the failure of vast bureaucracies to educate the poor, it is emphasized that schools should be reorganized to alter the power structure within which educational decisions are made, to accomplish the joint participation of school and community at every level in the power structure, and to focus increasing educational opportunities in the urban educational system (Hatton, 1974). Attention is also directed toward "the recruitment and training of minority-group professionals [Cronin, 1973, p. 243]," and toward "forming a new coalition based on mutual respect between the teachers and the leaders of the new urban power structures [Selden, 1974, p. 20]."

SUMMARY

Home-school-community relations is conceptualized as an administrative function, as parent participation, and as a political process. The ultimate goal of home-school-community relations is to improve instructional programs and the welfare of the children within a community. To reach this goal, information exchange and public participation in school affairs are emphasized. Administrative decentralization and community control of public schools attempt to change the educational administrative structure in urban areas.

Thus the concept of home-school-community relations is dynamic and developmental in nature. From the functional perspective, home-school-community relations has evolved from the one-way direction--either "telling the school to the community" or "knowing the community"--to two-way interaction or direct communication between school personnel and the public; the participatory perspective clarifies the scope and intensity of public participation; and the political perspective provides insights into who controls education in the public schools. These perspectives provide three major approaches to the improvement of home-school-community relations practices, which are described in the next section.

III

APPROACHES TO THE IMPROVEMENT OF HOME-SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

There are three basic approaches to theory and practice in home-school-community relations: (1) the administrative functional approach, (2) the public participatory approach, and (3) the political configuration approach. Each will be discussed in light of its objectives, specific programs or activities, theoretical foundations, and research and studies of home-school-community relations.

ADMINISTRATIVE-FUNCTIONAL APPROACH

The administrative-functional approach to the improvement of home-school-community relations stresses information exchange between home and school or school and community. It is concerned with "selling" or "telling" the school to the community, knowing the community, and direct interaction and communication between these two.

Objectives of the Approach

From the viewpoint of school administrators and teachers, the administrative-functional approach has three major goals: (1) to give the public the appropriate information on children's education and the operation of schools, (2) to receive information from the homes and the community, and (3) to communicate with each other through direct interaction. To provide information about the school to the public, school public relations is expected to inform the public about the work of the schools; establish confidence in the schools; rally support for proper maintenance of the educational program; develop awareness of the importance of education; improve the partnership concept by uniting parents and teachers in meeting the educational needs of children; integrate the home, the school, and the community in improving educational opportunities; evaluate the offerings of the schools in meeting the needs of the children; and correct misunderstandings about the aims and objectives of the schools (Heckey, 1945).

Moehlman and van Zwoll (1957) distinguish between ultimate and immediate objectives of school public relations. The ultimate objective is "to promote public consciousness of social problems and needs . . . , to establish confi-

dence the institution merits . . . , to provide for immediate improvement . . . , and to improve the operations of the partnership concept," while the immediate objective is "the enlistment of parental or community support for immediate needs [p. 155]." Cultural and intellectual goals are primary in a good school public relations program. Directed toward academic improvement; public relations can be a key "to changing values and creating new goals [Carine, 1962, p. 16]." An effective program of school public relations or community relations is necessary not only for increasing "public acceptance of new ideas and practices in education [Jones, 1964, p. 29]," but also for influencing attitudes and behavior of the public in obtaining appreciation and financial support (Rice, 1969).

The school board, administrators, and teachers should also know their community. The school board must be aware of current public attitudes toward schools so that it may make decisions and formulate policy in accord with community expectations and needs (Kelly, 1968). The administrator must know the community to establisn good public relations and school-community relations (Norton, 1968). School teachers too should study their community, the most important force that affects their pupils (Swan, 1968).

Furthermore, a cooperative, interactive relationship of two-way communication between the school administrator and the public is necessary for giving the public information and assessing its needs for future decision-making (Atkinson, 1971). To control the child's environment, the school administrator has to be able to control communication and interaction between the school and the community (Wayson, 1972). Thus the administrative-functional approach attempts to increase both public understanding of education and school personnel's awareness of the community through the mutual exchange of information.

Specific Programs or Activities

The administrative-functional approach provides home-school-community relations programs or activities for the exchange of appropriate information. To increase public understanding of education, the American Association of School Administrators (1950) has pointed to the use of media for public relations. These include speech, newspapers, radio and television, slides and motion pictures, graphic and pictorial materials, letters, messages to parents, student publications, reports, exhibits, excursions, and observances. Hymes (1953) includes the written word in home-school relations programs, such as news notes of good cheer, newsletters, start-to-school booklets, and other leaflets produced by the school for parents. Kindred (1957) includes report cards and letters to parents as well. With regard to report cards, Ellis (1968) remarks critically that "report cards reflect one of the great hoaxes that education inflicts on the parents and children of our communities [p. 125]," indicating that they seldom report what they claim to report, and they do not reflect the child's ability to succeed, his effort quotient, or the impact of extraneous factors that have little or nothing to do with the subject matter. She suggests four major improvements: the report should be directly related to identifiable subject area objectives; the grade should reflect the ability/effort ratio of each child; the approach should be positive; and parent-teacher

conferences should be face-to-face confrontations. In opposition to the letter or number grading system, Corsin and Dinkmeyer (1968) make basic suggestions for a more rational rating system: those who teach should not grade; grades should be based on large-scale accomplishment standards; and grades should be interpreted in terms of aptitudes.

Spearman (1966), Superintendent of Hinsdale, Illinois, School District, presents a case study of a successful 10-week seminar for mothers held by the school district to inform them (and through them, the community) about educational programs. He believes mothers possess two qualities which make them ideal information disseminators--a natural curiosity about education as it affects their children and a desire to share views with other parents.

To improve school public relations programs, Pinson (1967) suggested the following actions to the East Texas School Study Council: appoint a staff member with responsibility to develop school-community relations, organize a program with specific long-range plans, increase representation of principals and teachers in civic speaking assignments, publish a school paper regularly, publish an annual report, and increase the usefulness of the parent-teacher association through effective participation of administrators and teachers. Smith (1971) believes that any district with more than 10,000 students needs a full-time public relations staff for program planning and evaluating objectives. Norton (1970) proposes a systems approach for school public relations in order to assure a concentrated, yet comprehensive, application of all school and community resources to the implementation of the public relations program. Specific actions are suggested for design and evaluation of program objectives, use of professionals within the system appropriate to their roles and responsibilities and coordination of all of the system's elements in fulfilling objectives.

To understand the community, educators need information from the community. Kindred (1957) emphasizes a comprehensive community survey covering all aspects of demography and culture in a geographic area. Initially, the survey should concentrate upon customs and traditions, population characteristics, communication channels, organized groups, leadership, social tensions, and the history of community efforts. In determining educational needs of the community, Sweigert (1967) suggests the use of "educational opinion polling," which is process- or product-oriented. He emphasizes that by polling community opinion on educational matters, administrators will determine the community's level of tolerance for educational failure, the respondents' feelings about spending money in the schools, and the level of acceptance of innovation. In addition to a series of annual Gallup surveys of the public's attitude toward the public schools (appearing in the Phi Delta Kappan [Gallup], 1969, 1970, 1971, 1972, and 1973), individual attempts have been made to survey citizens' attitudes toward their schools (Kleine, Nystrond, & Bridges, 1969) and parent's attitudes toward and aspirations for the educational system (Pallister & Wilson, 1970). An educational attitude scale has been developed and verified by Kerlinger (1956, 1958, 1959, 1967, and 1970).

For a counterflow of information and data from the community to the school board, Kelly (1968) suggests a continuing, systematic program to obtain information on the following questions:

1. What has been the history of support for the local school boards?
2. What has been the social class structure of the community, in whole or in part?
3. What organizations in the community are most directly concerned with the schools and why?
4. What changes in employment and in business are occuring in the district?
5. Which of the news media and various clubs and organizations in the district seem to be most concerned with education?
6. Over a period of years, what actions and decisions by the school board have provoked intense community interest or reaction?

Emphasis should be placed on listening to the influential leaders in the community (Longstreth, 1966) and knowing its power structure (Hughes, 1967) in order to understand the community. The analysis and understanding of community power and influences will be discussed later in the section on the political configuration approach.

In many school systems, especially at the elementary school level, group meetings or personal contacts and communication have been important aspects of home-school-community relations. Hymes (1953) describes group meetings, including "fact meetings," "discussion meetings," and "work and play meetings," and face-to-face relationships based on home visits and reporting to parents, in home-school relations. Visits by teachers to the homes of pupils, parents' visits to the school, and conferences between parents and teachers are important aspects of personal relations programs or the cooperative program (Fitzwater, 1954; Kindred, 1957). Parent-teacher conferences are replacing report cards in reporting the child's educational achievement to parents. Two-way informal communication programs are also illustrated by parent-unit meetings with small discussion groups stressing interaction and questions and answers about the child's education; positive calls to home by teachers and to the school by parents; and kaffee-katsches at either the school or the home.

Theoretical Foundations

The basic premise behind the administrative-functional approach is that people in a democratic society have the right to know about the education of their children, and that the more informed people are, the more supportive they are of the educational enterprise. The approach is also based on principles or theories of public relations, information flow, value-orientations and attitudes toward education, and communication.

AASA (1950) has attempted to provide some guiding principles for school public relations: School public relations ought to be honest in intent and execution, intrinsic, continuous, comprehensive, sensitive to its public, and simple. As rules for the effective operation of a school public relations program, Kindred (1957) provides seven principles, which are similar to the AASA's but more extensive. They are integrity, continuity, coverage, simplicity, constructiveness, adaptability, and flexibility. Moehlman and van Zwoll (1957) developed 12 principles of school public relations in light of the relationship of the public school to a democratic society, the nature

of the democratic process, and the teaching profession. These "ought-to-be" principles seem old fashioned, but they should help guide the preparation and operation of school public relations programs.

A recently developed systems theory provides a basis for understanding the relationship between the school organization and its environment. Concentrating on the causal texture of the environment, Emery and Trist (1965) develop four ideal types of organizational environments:

1. the placid, randomized environment in which goals are relatively unchanging in themselves and randomly distributed,
2. the placid, clustered environment which is characterized in terms of clustering environmental goals,
3. the disturbed-reactive environment consisting of a clustered environment in which there is more than one system of the same kind, and
4. turbulent fields which are dynamic due to the complexity and multiple character of the causal interconnections.

In relation to these four ideal types of organizational environment, McWhinney (1968) discusses technical, managerial, and directional functions of organizations and four decision modalities--certainty, risk, uncertainty, and domain problems. The juxtaposition of environmental types and decision modalities provides the basis for understanding the domain decision in the community. Viewing environment as a flow of information, Dill (1962) views individuals and organizations as information processing systems and presents short- and long-run environmental influences on organizational development. In the short-run, the environment influences task formulation within organizations; while long-run information influences are either concentrated or continuing, but have less obvious impact on organizational development. According to Brown (1966), information needed by organizations can be classified as strategic, managerial, or technical. Corresponding to these three basic kinds of information, three types of intelligence mechanisms are developed--sieves, screens, and filters. He proposes the creation of an internal information agency between the policy and management levels for integration, evaluation, and comparison of the various kinds of information coming into the organization.

In identifying conflicts in education it is important to understand community value orientations or attitudes toward education. Spindler's value continuum and McGivney and Moynihan's "zone of tolerance" concept are useful for achieving this purpose. Spindler (1955) proposes a continuum of values ranging from the "traditional"--Puritan morality, work-success ethic, individualism, achievement orientation and future-time orientation--to the "emerging"--sociality, relativistic moral attitude, consideration for others, hedonism, present-time orientation, and conformity to the group. Although published 20 years ago, Spindler's book is still a useful tool for examining the nature of conflicts over education and the school-community relationship. Based on the community and the school's predominating value orientations (localism or cosmopolitanism), McGivney and Moynihan (1972) formulate a heuristic typology of school-community relationships and a "zone of tolerance," which is referred to as "the latitude or area of maneuverability granted (or yielded) to the leadership of the schools by the local community [p. 211]."

Both the types and the zone of tolerance, distinguished by the difference in values or congruence between the school and the community, provide a framework for investigation into the differing types of conflict, pressures for continuity or change, and various types of leadership characteristics.

To investigate the attitudes of individuals toward education and educational issues, Kerlinger (1956) developed an educational attitude theory on the basis of the dichotomy between "restrictive-traditional" and "permissive-progressive" points of view. As basic types of educational attitudes, Kerlinger (1958) describes progressivism and traditionalism as follows: educationally progressive attitudes are associated with permissiveness, independence, and autonomy, and have a problem-solving emphasis; progressive attitudes view education as growth and as being both child and need centered, they stress internal discipline and equality and warmth in interpersonal relationships, and regard education as an instrument of social change. Politically and socially progressive attitudes are associated with liberal, change-oriented beliefs and view morality as based on social and individual responsibility. In contrast, educationally traditional attitudes are associated with restrictiveness, dependence, and a narrow and practical educational attitude emphasizing subject matters, impersonal superior-subordinate relationships, and external discipline. Politically and socially traditional attitudes are oriented toward conservative, status-quo preserving beliefs and view morality as based on external higher authority. Kerlinger (1962) develops a structural theory for explaining the factional structure and content of social attitudes.

In developing communication between educators and the public, communication models and theories are useful. The early published literature was concerned with the flow of communication. Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955) hypothesized that communications reach the individual citizen within the community in two steps: (1) from radio and print to "opinion leaders" in various segments of the community, and (2) from the opinion leaders to less active citizens in the population. Concerning the role of mass media in education, the fifty-third yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education set forth the procedures and effects of mass communication (Schramm, 1954) and the printed media (Swanson, 1954). Their major concern was with transmission of the message or information. Some other early models deal chiefly with the social-psychological processes and personal influence of communication. For instance, from a comprehensive review of the literature on effects of mass media, Klapper (1949) concludes that face-to-face disclosure is a more effective instrument of persuasion than the mass media because of certain characteristics deriving from the personal relationships involved.

Against these trends, Mortensen (1972) offers a multidimensional theoretical framework for the study of human communication. This framework consists of the intrapersonal, interpersonal, and sociocultural systems of communication which share certain essential components. In particular, the discussion of interpersonal contacts, communication networks, and social influence provides insights into developing communication in home-school-community relations. For a quantitative analysis of the manifest content of communication, Berelson (1952) offers content analysis techniques for identifying substance and form of communication, procedures and intended audience of content, and effects of content. The units of content analysis

comprise word, theme, character, item, and space and time; the inter-relation of the units is emphasized. An attempt was made to delineate informal communication about schools by the CAST Project (Carter et al., 1966, p. 75) at Stanford University. The project assumes 12 dimensions in four areas of informal communications: (1) scope (total, topics, conversants), (2) initiative (giving, being given, seeking, being sought), (3) directional (horizontal, vertical up, vertical down), and (4) influence (attempts, successes).

The illustration of basic principles or theoretical foundations as related to the information base and the exchange between the school and the public guide the development of functional programs in home-school-community relations. Further, theoretical foundations also provide insights into implementing research on the related programs. Through intensive research, educators, in turn, could expand their application to improving home-school-community relations practices.

Research and Studies

Research and studies on functional programs in home-school-community relations may be divided into three categories: (1) research in school public relations in a narrow sense, i.e., providing the public with school information, (2) community surveys and studies, and (3) research on communication between the school and the public.

School Public Relations Research. An attempt was made in 1928 to review research in educational publicity. Alexander reviewed 28 documents in educational publicity which appeared during the 10 years prior to June 1927. The literature on educational publicity was chiefly confined to listing, describing, and analyzing the agents, media, and administrative aspects so he discussed them under these three headings, giving attention to problems involved, completed research, and needed research. As a result, the reviewer indicated that "the status of school publicity is much like that of the radio business [p. 485]," with knowledge of what programs to put on and how to prepare them. Twenty-five years later, a review of research on school-community relationships by Sumption (1952) concluded that "the public-relations program of the public schools must be a two-way process," and that "the older method of releasing information about the school for the absorption of the public is being replaced by the community participation method [p. 326]." Pearson (1956) analyzes pre-1955 research studies in the field of school public relations, including 51 periodical articles, research and reports from 27 books and yearbooks, 2 mimeographed reports, and 120 unpublished doctoral studies. His analysis points out that all studies, using the methods of survey or analysis, reveal considerable differences between the expressed beliefs of professional personnel regarding public relations and the extent to which the beliefs have been put into practice. The professionals were concerned mainly with what was being done, with little effort made to determine the effectiveness of what was being done.

Tracing back to the 1920's, Charters (1969) reviews research on public relations and indicates that "the research has been predominantly oriented to the practices and techniques of public relations, and it is only since about 1960 that careful investigations have appeared concerning the targets of public relations efforts [p. 1031]." He divides the vast majority of

studies covering a 50-year period into two categories: (1) normative surveys, collecting professional opinion on the value of techniques and programs, and (2) status studies, describing some set of circumstances related to public relations at a particular time and place.

There are also a number of research studies dealing with specific programs such as pupil reporting schemes, parent conferences, home visits of teachers, and transmission of school information to parents. Mann et al. (1966) compared the effects of formal and informal reporting systems on parent attitudes; no difference was found between an anecdotal and a regular pupil-reporting scheme. Conklin (1968) examined parents' perceptions of letter grading marks (A, B, C, D, F) with a random sample of 400 parents of fifth grade children in four school systems in greater Cleveland. All variables tested--socioeconomic status, educational aspirations, grades received by the child, and community and school system influence--were found to affect parents' perceptions of school marks. The amount and range of variability in parents' perceptions of marks indicates a real need for improved communication of the aspects of pupil success which are reported to parents.

With regard to parent-teacher conferences, Kitchens (1961) found positive results were derived from parent conferences for which teachers were trained in advance to interpret information about the child. However, Schiff's study (1963) indicated that no differences appeared in the effects on parent attitudes between an intensive program of teacher conferences and the usual school contacts. A recent study of parent and teacher opinions about parent-teacher conferences as an alternative to grade cards (Erickson, 1973) indicated that the conference method of reporting the progress of the child conveys considerably more information than the grade cards, and that both parents and teachers consider the conference to be necessary for the educational growth of the child.

McCuthean (1965) identified positive effects of a planned program of two home visits (as opposed to none) on student attitudes. A group of studies on the transmission of school information to parents discusses the source of information and its diffusion method. Van Winkle (1956) found that parents and superintendents in 42 midwestern school districts were in overall agreement in their rankings of most-used sources of information--child, first; letters and duplicated bulletins, second; and newspapers, third (although some discrepancies appeared within individual school systems). An information diffusion and recall study failed to find any significant differences between verbal announcements at parent meetings and take-home notices (Zeller, 1959).

Community Surveys and Studies. The most illuminating empirical investigations of community surveys have been directed toward public opinion about public schools and public attitudes toward the school. At the beginning of the 1950's, Sumption (1952) reviewed three opinion surveys made in three different cities. A survey conducted in San Diego found that a large majority of the community was well satisfied with the public schools (Crawford, 1952); a Bloomington survey also found a high degree of general satisfaction with the schools (Bloomington Board of Education, 1952); while a questionnaire survey sent to parents in a school district in Minneapolis found that three out of four admitted to lacking sufficient knowledge of the common learning programs to form valid opinions. Recent surveys also reflect the lack of citizens' information about their schools (Fowlkes, 1967, Nystrand, 1969).

Attitudinal research has received persistent attention. Following the Mort and Cornell study (1941), which showed a positive correlation between citizen acceptance of "new ideas" in education and school adaptability, Ross (1958) examined the relationship between measures of community attitude toward education and the "quality" of the schools. In relation to the social structure of the community, the individual's beliefs and attitudes are found to be influenced by his or her social relationships and place within the power alignment of the community (Campbell, 1956; Hines & Crobman, 1957). Among recent studies the annual attitude survey conducted by Gallup International (1969-73) provides educators with an overall public reaction to school programs and policies, and information about the status and trends in public attitude. It also serves as a national benchmark against which local attitudes can be compared. In his dissertation study designed to determine the feasibility of a Gallup model, Gish (1972) concluded that a Gallup survey in local districts could be used by administrators to listen to their local publics. Unlike Gallup's nationwide survey, small scale investigations are made to study parents' attitudes, or citizen attitudes, toward their schools. Pallister and Wilson (1970) compared the attitudes, aspirations and knowledge of working class and middle class mothers with regard to the educational system. Their findings indicated that the working class mothers knew very much less about the system and were less eager for their children to go on to higher education. Middle class parents tended to be ambitious beyond the child's intellectual capacity, while working class mothers tended to underestimate the child's intellectual ability. In terms of job ambitions, mothers' expectations conformed to their own class background rather than to their children's actual potential. Data from the Cincinnati and Columbus studies, based on a household questionnaire and a series of case studies, indicated that most citizens were reasonably satisfied with their schools and also supportive of constructive changes (Kleine, Nystrond, & Bridges, 1969).

Another type of attitudinal study comprises those exploring community expectations of the authority structure of school systems. A Wisconsin study made the following generalizations about citizens' expectations of the board of education: citizens have little knowledge of school board functions; their expectations vary; they may underestimate the importance of the superintendent; and their knowledge of school and their expectations are related to whether they have children attending (Fowlkes, 1967). Belaco, Allutto, and Glassman (1971) found sharp differences between perceptions of the current decision-making structure held by internal system members and those of the community; the latter perceived the school board and superintendent as exercising considerably more control than was perceived by the teachers.

Communication between the School and the Public. Another type of communication research concerns public contacts with school personnel and vice versa. Foskett (1955) contended that there is a positive relationship between the social class of the public and the frequency of their contacts with school personnel. Correll (1963) investigated the frequency over a month period of parent-initiated contacts with various categories of school personnel, from custodians to board members. His finding supports a strong, positive relationship between frequency of contact and social class level of parents, but also a pervasive bias among parents toward contacting personnel at a level in the school hierarchy equal to their own social class level. Thus low class parents sought out custodians and cooks, while upper-class parents contacted board members. In another direction, Corwin (1974) reported an analysis of relationships between selected characteristics of schools and

the extent to which the teachers and other professional personnel interact with parents. Regression analyses reveal the following five organizational variables to be most predictive of professional contacts with parents: proportion of students on welfare, centralization of decision making, employee participation in professional associations, staff seniority, and standardization.

Research on sources of information about schools indicates that different channels of communication are used depending upon the subject. While children are considered to be a prime source of information for parents (Van Winkle, 1956), one study reported that citizens secured most of their information about a school-district reorganization from fellow citizens (Dennis, 1954). In another study, students were rarely found to be involved in exchanges with adults regarding a pending school-bond election (Carter, 1960). In her study of secondary school parents' media preferences, Marnix (1971) found that no single media category was preferred for all information items and areas. The most frequently preferred media were school publications for information about school activities, management support programs, and staff, followed by general bulletins for curriculum, policies, and guidance, and last, written requests for information about the individual students.

Cohn (1959) examined the relationship of a local newspaper to the educational problems of its community. He found that people were influenced by what they read about the schools and suggested that the local newspaper was a mediating influence. Another survey of 11 metropolitan and local newspapers was made to determine the amount of news, in categories, covering school and school-related information during the calendar year of 1964 (Suburban Area Study Group, Silver Spring, Maryland, 1966). The quantitative analysis of school news content drew the following generalizations:

1. The largest volume of school news concerned "peripheral" topics rather than those reflecting basic issues in education;
2. Variety and volume of school news varied from newspaper to newspaper;
3. Some papers had a higher total impact per news item than others by virtue of news selection procedure, volume of news, and circulation;
4. Emphasis in the dailies appeared to be on special or crisis situations (school budget, board of education elections, etc.); and
5. The largest category of coverage was news about students (sports, activities, honors, etc.).

To understand the type and quality of school news that local newspapers are publishing, Gordon (1968) used a content analysis of 50 consecutive issues of 12 different newspapers in 11 states for classifying 62.5 column inches of school news into 12 categories. The major findings were that:

1. school news comprised 1.75 percent of all news;
2. notwithstanding geographic differences, there was a marked similarity in the relative coverage of school news (r = .79);
3. school sports received 52 percent of all school news coverage and constituted 42 percent of the total number of articles;

4. all school news, minus sports news, was equal to 0.84 percent of all news; and
5. school news minus news of both sports and extracurricular activities was equal to 0.72 percent of all news.

Based on these findings, the author commented that it was highly doubtful that the citizens were being adequately informed of the activities, programs, and goals of the schools.

A summary of research studies dealing with selected mass media (Winfield, 1965) provided two implications: (1) The use of school-made radio and TV programs as well as school-produced motion pictures should be given consideration in planning and organizing a school-community relations program. (2) School-produced programs should be designed with "target audience appeal" in contrast to the old style of "something for everyone." As a two-way community approach, Aldridge (1967) developed a planned program of interviewing citizens by teachers in order to change public attitudes toward school policies and programs. An experimental test using three groups drawn from a census list concluded that interviews of school district citizens at their homes may be an effective way to achieve more favorable opinions about school policies and programs.

As a part of Project CAST, The Structure and Process of School-Community Relations, Carter and his associates (Vol. I, 1966) studied informal communication about schools. The study had five objectives:

1. to locate the persons engaged in any informal communication about schools outside their own household,
2. to quantify various conversational behaviors of public school parents and school personnel,
3. to describe the relationships among aspects of informal communication behavior,
4. to look at the conduct of informal communication within conversations, and
5. to describe the characteristics of nets of informal communication.

The major conclusion on informal communicators and flow of information and influence was that "different people exert different kinds of influence in different ways on different kinds of people [p. 340];" and the study discussed what school leaders should do about informal communication processes. Aside from these findings, it provided a technically as well as conceptually useful tool for identifying informal communicators and their communication procedures between citizens and school personnel.

A recent study was done to identify and evaluate the home-school communications program in 13 individually guided education (IGE) schools in Alabama. For the study, Diener (1972) constructed a questionnaire using 54 communication activities and 36 criteria, which were finally reduced by factor analyses to 15 activities and 7 criterion factors. The results indicated that 10 of the 13 IGE schools involved lacked planned, long-range home-school communication programs; Diener concluded that respondents (principals, teachers, parents) realized that there was a need for increased communication activities and improved school communication with parents.

Research studies on functional programs within the area of school publicity can be traced back to the 1920's, but most of them have been done in the last 25 years. The majority of research is directed toward fact-finding or evaluating existing program activities, rather than creating or developing appropriate, practical programs. During the last decade, more attention has been given to community studies and communication research for the improvement of home-school-community relations.

PUBLIC-PARTICIPATORY APPROACH

The public-participatory approach to home-school-community relations assumes the cooperation and partnership of parents, citizens, and the community as a whole with school personnel for the improvement of education. Participatory activities in this section are confined to those ranging from the individual volunteer participating in school affairs to the organizational advisory functions of school personnel; citizen's direct involvement in formulating educational policies and community control of public schools will be discussed under the heading of the political configuration approach. The objectives, specific activities, theoretical foundations, and research studies of the public participatory approach are described below.

Objectives of the Approach

The main goal of the public participatory approach is to increase the public's cooperation with school personnel for children's education and welfare in schools. A review of the literature reveals the following specific objectives:

1. To increase parents' understanding of children's education (Dunfee, 1964; Conant, 1971).
2. To supplement efforts of the school staff in education (Cunningham, 1970; Conant, 1971).
3. To contribute toward the individualization of instruction and evaluation of pupils in schools (Wormsbecker, 1970).
4. To develop parent leadership and education (Murry, 1974).
5. To increase understanding and support for educational projects on the part of the community (Muniz, 1969; Cunningham, 1970; Pellegrino, 1973).
6. To facilitate communication between the school and the community (Bromacki, 1966; Essex, 1970).
7. To avoid crises in the schools (Terwilliger, 1963).
8. To create good will and mutual esteem between the community and schools (Muniz, 1969).
9. To increase the awareness of community problems and expectations of education on the part of school personnel (Muniz, 1969; Cunningham, 1970; Pellegrino, 1972).
10. To promote educational accountability to the public (Cunningham, 1970).

Thus, the public participatory approach aims at increasing understanding, support, and assistance for educational purposes on the part of the community and an awareness of the community and accountability on the part of the school, through the public's participation in school affairs.

Specific Programs or Activities

Various programs and activities have been tried to increase cooperation between the public and school personnel through the participatory approach. These activities have varied from those initiated mainly by the school or by the public to joint endeavors of the public and the school. They are classified here into individual-based and organized activities by the form of public participation involved.

Individual-based Participation. Individual-based participatory programs include a broad range of activities. Fitzwater (1954) suggested use of parents' special talents in the classroom, parent-teacher made inventory for community survey, homework programs where parents work with children, and a room mother program associated with the PTA programs (pp. 84-89). Kindred and Allen (1954) broadly categorized various kinds of cooperative citizen projects into the following headings: parents participating in school activities, special services for the community, ways of improving citizenship, increasing citizen understanding of schools, practices related to pupil welfare and progress, improving the school plant and facilities, attention to recreation, and helping to develop the curriculum (pp. 131-140).

There are various more specific activities for voluntary services in the school, e.g., audio-visual aides performing simple maintenance tasks and operating audio-visual equipment; library-aides assisting the school librarian in shelving, filing, clipping, and book processing; clerical aides for testing services and other school records; volunteers in school luncheon and after-school programs; field trip assistants working on field trips or excursions to cultural events; and resource persons participating in the selection and development of instructional materials.

Recently, parent or citizen participation has been extended to paraprofessional instructional programs in the school. "Fifty teachers in a Classroom Project" in Great Neck, New York, was designed to invite parents and interested citizens with special skills, experiences in travel and professional backgrounds to classes (Osborne, 1959). The Hartford Intensive City-University Teacher Training Project (HICUT) invited parents, community leaders, city agency employees, businessmen and housewives to serve as consultants and lecturers, and verified that parents, teachers, and other people in the community could combine their efforts and provide pupils with a dynamic educational experience (Weinswig & Freedman, 1968). Holmes and Masse (1969) discussed the trend toward involving parents and other residents of the community as paraprofessionals in "cluster teaching" to help children, especially the disadvantaged, attain desired educational goals. The program, "School and Home: Focus on Achievement," was designed to raise the academic level of underachieving elementary school children by involving their parents in the daily reading exercises and study habits of their children at home (Smith, 1969). These programs of involving parents and other people in the community proved successful in improving classroom instruction.

Organized Participatory Activities. One of the earliest of the formally organized groups of citizens interested in promoting the cause of education was the National Congress of Mothers. It was founded in 1897 as an agency for education in motherhood, child health, eugenics, child feeding, and morality through the development of a strong body and a healthy mind (Overstreet & Overstreet, 1949). In 1908, this organization changed its name to the National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Association, which was shortened in 1924 to the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. Today it is usually referred to as the PTA. The PTA permits "many citizens to participate in public education [Campbell & Ramseyer, 1955, p. 161]." It has "a very definite functional relationship to the public school system in terms of the partnership concept of education [Moehlman & van Zwoll, 1957, p. 401]." The national organization comprises a series of state and local PTAs. The number of organized PTA units rose from about 26,000 in 1946 to more than 46,000 in 1967, and membership increased from about 3,900,000 in 1946 to more than 11,500,000 in 1966 (Knezevich, 1969). During the 1960's, certain groups who unsuccessfully attempted to take over the local school PTAs organized the Parent-Teacher Organization (PTO).

Parent organizations other than the PTA include homeroom and grade councils, parent or school councils, parent clubs, community organizations, neighborhood groups, and school improvement leagues (Moehlman & van Zwoll, 1957). Aside from these organizations, the Coordinating Council (an extra-legal body), Business-Industry Education (or BIE) Day program for lay citizen participation, and citizens' study groups are cited by Campbell and Ramseyer (1955).

The most dramatic movement fostering citizen participation in public education was "the organization of the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools and the resultant local citizens committees which have come into existence in a large part through the encouragement and with the help of the Commission [Campbell & Ramseyer, 1955, p. 168]." Citizens' advisory groups are "live projections of the partnership concept of public education and ensure relatively safe and consistent functioning of the school as a dynamic social institution [Moehlman & van Zwoll, 1957, p. 450]." The citizen or lay advisory committees in education reached a high point during the 1950's. Such committees are advisory to legal authorities and do not replace the board of education. Accordingly, the school board has the right to accept or reject their recommendations (Knezevich, 1969).

The participation of parents or citizens, individually or collectively, is significant in education. They can simultaneously become informed and express their opinions, giving advice and suggestions for better education. In an organized body, whether association, commission, committee, council, or study group, the individual citizen contributes to the integrating of public schools with community educational needs.

Theoretical Foundations

The public-participatory approach is based on the principles of democratic administration in schools, which has been defined, by Bardman (1949), as "the use of free discussion and decision on the part of all concerned in determining the ends or purposes to be attained and the means or

plans by which the ends are to be attained and acceptance of full responsibility for their actions or decisions [p. 206]." Based on practical experience and common sense, Fitzwater (1954) confirms that parents should be encouraged to help plan and initiate as well as carry through and evaluate projects: where citizen participation in school planning exists, classroom programs are better than they would be without such assistance, and community acceptance of the school program comes more readily when community members are involved in its development. This notion emphasizes participation in planning or developing school programs as well as in their implementation and evaluation. For lay citizens and professional educators working together, Campbell and Ramseyer (1955, pp. 151-186) suggest the following 10 principles of action:

1. Only as lay citizen and professional school people work together can public education become and remain what it ought to be.
2. Decisions regarding what the school ought to be are an obligation which the lay citizen cannot sidestep.
3. The "how" of school operation is essentially the obligation of the professional school worker.
4. Recommendations regarding schools should be channeled through the board of education, which has legal responsibility for school operation.
5. Public participation will be adequate only when many devices, arrangements, and organizations are utilized.
6. Public participation is needed at all levels: national, state, county, school district, the school building, and even the single classroom.
7. Only as lay citizens learn to clarify and research problems can public participation be constructive.
8. To succeed, public participation should take into account the values, ways of working, and organizational patterns of each community.
9. Public participation is developmental in nature: as lay citizens and school workers succeed in small tasks, they gain confidence and skill to bring such interaction to full flower.
10. Effective citizen participation in public education requires superintendents, principals, and other school leaders who perceive the responsibilities in such a program, who take steps to start it going, and who continue to give it guidance.

These principles are given as ground rules; a distinction is made between the responsibilities of citizens and of educators in working together for public education. Litwak, Shiroi, Zimmerman, and Bernstein (1970) provide a theoretical basis for community participation in large-scale organizations. Reviewing two contradictory viewpoints of the role of bureaucratic organizations and community primary groups, they develop a balance theory to predict that the community and the bureaucracy will optimally achieve their respective goals if they operate at some mid-point from each other. Based on

this balance theory, community linkages are hypothesized by the combination of two dimensions--(1) community and bureaucracy distance and (2) non-expert or expert task. Also, some optimal community linkages are suggested under varying conditions of social distance and organizational structures.

Individual, organizational, and social variables, as related to member participation in voluntary organizations, provide insight into understanding community participation in educational organizations. In addition to "Static" variables such as age, occupation, family status, and education, Beal (1956) conceptualizes "dynamic" variables such as member understanding of the basic principles of organization and operation, satisfaction, having a "say" in decision-making, and feeling of responsibility, which are highly related to member participation. In analyzing the relationship between organization size and member participation, Warner and Hillander (1964) identified six elements of membership participation: (1) attendance at regular meetings, (2) attendance at special meetings, (3) active involvement in the meetings, (4) performance of special assignments, (5) taking part in project activities, and (6) making financial contributions. Furthermore, social structure and participation in a community organization (Mardec, 1961) and a causal relationships model (Nie et al., 1969), consisting of socioeconomic attributes, intervening attitudinal variables, and rates of political participation would provide a conceptual framework for analyzing the relationships between the social background and status of citizens and their participation in school affairs. An effort in this direction is Liechty's study (1977) which includes an instrument for identifying environmental and personal variables affecting citizens' participation in educational systems.

To evaluate the participatory activities in home-school communications, Diener (1972) developed 5 principles (including 16 criteria) on the basis of reviewed literature. The major principles for participatory activities follow:

> Principle A. Participatory activities should involve students, parents, and school representatives in a long-range planned communications program, relevant short-range planned involvements, and information interaction.
>
> Principle B. Participatory activities should contribute to the education of students by making information about each child and resources of places, materials, and personnel available for use in the school's instructional program.
>
> Principle C. Participatory activities should contribute to the intellectual development of students and to the operation of the school.
>
> Principle D. Participating parents should reinforce implementation of the instructional process through supportive attitudes and by giving overt support to the instructional program.
>
> Principle E. Successful participatory activities are dependent upon the school representatives' provision for a friendly atmosphere in which the individual differences of parents should be accepted [p. 188].

Assuming that one of the most significant avenues of citizen participation is school-initiated citizens' committees, Hamlin (1949, p. 47) proposed some successful procedures for their organization:

1. A general advisory council for the board of education, with an associated advisory committee for each attendance unit and subcommittee for each division of each school, is formed.
2. Nominations for the council are made by a representative cross-section of the people the group is to serve.
3. The administration concerned chooses the required number from those nominated, making sure they are representative.
4. The board of education gives final approval to the nominations and informs those who are chosen.
5. The members are participants in some phase of the community education program.
6. The members are not representatives of community groups, but are individuals working for the betterment of schools.
7. The advisory councils advise and inform the community and school people of mutual needs and resources.

A review of citizens' advisory committees (Sumption, 1951) concluded that the committee was rapidly becoming useful in problem-solving, and some guidelines were indicated as follows: the committees should be representative of the entire community; membership in the central committee should not be too large; if more people wish to participate, subcommittees should be organized; and the committee should not be disbanded upon the solution of the original problem(s), but should work continuously for the betterment of the schools. Concerning the advisory activities, Diener (1972) proposes two principles, including six criteria for evaluating their specific activities:

> Principle A. Parents and school representatives should participate on the advisory council or advisory committee of each school and should make sure that decisions are reached and presented to the school as recommendations.
>
> Principle B. The effectiveness of the advisory council or advisory committee depends upon its influence in effecting the school program and upon its stability for sustained influence. [p. 190]

Other research studies provide additional theoretical bases for the public-participatory approach to home-school-community relations.

Research and Studies

The review of research studies on public-participatory programs in home-school-community relations is divided into two categories: studies of parent or citizen participation, and studies on various advisory committees.

Parent or Citizen Participation Studies. In general, studies on parent and citizen participation in school affairs reveal favorable results on student achievement and parents' attitudinal change. Connor (1951) reported on participation in the public schools of San Diego, California. A planned program of parent classroom observation and discussion (two hours a week at school) was evaluated. Results of achievement tests administered to 2,000 elementary school children showed that the experimental group in the planned program had made significantly greater gains in regular subject matter. Also, a great majority of the parents showed a willingness to cooperate.

A similar systematic program for enlisting parental assistance and participation in discussion groups brought about greater pupil achievement in the experimental group than in the paired control group of an eighth grade class in mathematics (Ilioff, 1957).

An experiment to enlist parents as co-teachers on homework assignments in reading seemed to be successful in two underachieving elementary schools in culturally deprived neighborhoods of Flint, Michigan. As a result, the average grade placement in reading in both schools increased by almost two years over control schools within a single semester (Parsons & Cave, 1962, p. 22). Willmon (1969) investigated the effects of parent participation in a Head Start program on the academic achievement of students. The study involved 485 black and 56 white children of similar reading ability and socioeconomic background living in Tallahassee, Florida. It revealed that those parents who participated most in planning, implementing, and evaluating the Head Start Program cared the most about the program, and were able to communicate this and transfer educational aspiration for achievement to their children. Results showed that parent participation influenced future academic achievement of children as measured by the Metropolitan Reading Readiness Test. Another study designed to determine the relationship between parent participation and changes in their attitudes found no significant correlation (Gredwick, 1967). The study developed a parent participation program, consisting of a series of structured letters inviting parents to attend meetings, lesson observations, parent-teacher conferences, and information on various activities. It was found that intensive involvement in the new reading program did not significantly affect parent attitudes toward education, toward the local school district or toward selected aspects of education. With regard to high school size, Andrews (1958) found that parents of students in smaller high schools were slightly better informed and more involved in school affairs. Cloward and Jones (1963) found the involvement of parents in school affairs to be positively correlated with their evaluation of the importance of education. When low income groups were divided into "formal participants," "visitors only," and a "no contact group," formal participants consistently indicated more agreement with the importance of education than did the other groups.

A 1951 survey of 1,817 educators (Story) suggested that they were rapidly becoming more community-conscious and that school policy-making is becoming more dependent upon lay participation. However, these educators did not want active citizen groups. Only 17.8 percent of the educators studied wanted active participation, 40.9 percent wanted limited participation, 30.1 percent would invite opinions from lay groups, but not encourage direct participation. From a series of in-depth interviews, Menkin (1969) contended that citizens do not want to run the schools; they only want to be consulted and respected, and to be given the opportunity to contribute ideas and resources. As Jennings and Zeigler's study (1969) pointed out, however, the rate of public participation in the educational system is very low. They found that only 21 percent of those who responded had some participation in any kind of school activity in the previous two or three years.

Roaden (1969) examined school- or citizen-initiated approaches to citizen participation in education in Atlanta and Huntsville, Georgia. The effectiveness of the methods of participation was viewed from two aspects: (1) How influential is the method for affecting school policies and school operating decisions? and (2) What is the stability of the method for sustained influence? According to these two criteria, he concluded:

> All forms of citizen participation require nurturance. If nurturance does not come from the schools, then it must come from another agency or an influential leader or constellation of leaders. For effective citizen participation, . . . there can be no ambivalence about objectives and values of the participatory agency or its sponsor [p. 23].

Such an analysis is appropriate for investigating programs for citizen participation in other cities. Also, the quality criteria can be applied to evaluate effectiveness of existing or emerging programs for citizen participation in education.

Research on Advisory Committees. Hull studied the membership and size of various advisory committees. His first study (1950a) found that 77 percent of the committees studied had a cross-sectional membership of the community. Also, three types of membership selections were explored: (1) about 48 percent of the school boards allowed parent organizations to elect or choose their own representatives; (2) twenty-seven percent of these committees had members appointed by the board of education; and (3) sometimes some members were elected by organizations and some were selected by the board of education. His second study of the size of advisory committees (1950b) revealed that groups larger than 40 were not practical and that the trend was toward smaller groups. He found that 61 percent of 44 committees studied for size had fewer than 40 members. The committees generally consisted of 80 to 90 percent laymen and 10 to 20 percent professional educators.

Sumption (1951) presented a type of advisory committee which has proved successful in a number of communities, i.e., subcommittees formed on the basis of such interest areas as community need assessment, school curriculum, school housing, and school finance. By comparing case histories of successful citizens' school improvement committees, Toy (1951) found three common characteristics: the groups are all representative of the entire community; they may remain independent, but work closely with the existing school authorities; and they begin their jobs by looking for facts, by conducting objective surveys of their school systems, and then outlining their program on the basis of these facts.

There are several surveys on citizen committees in particular states. A survey in Michigan schools conducted by Sweitzer (1954) indicated that typical citizen committees consisted of 20 to 29 members selected by boards of education or community agencies at the request of the board, and that most committees disbanded after specific tasks were completed. In a Wisconsin survey, McGraw (1958) found that many temporary citizen committees had been formed, that the superintendent served as the liaison between the board of education and the committees, and that the committees performed a communication function. A Colorado survey (Williams, 1959) found that 87.7 percent of the committees achieved their purpose when the objectives were clearly understood at the outset. O'Neal's study (1961) involved 678 school districts in New York State. Four intensive case studies of citizens' committees and statewide questionnaire surveys in the 1957-58 school year revealed extensive use and significance of these committees, higher frequency in districts larger than 10,000, greatest focus on building programs and bond issues, and the relative success of such committees in achieving their objectives.

AASA and NEA (1968) conducted a national survey which was designed to determine the composition and location of permanent citizens' advisory committees operating within the nation's school districts. The results provide the following information: (1) name of committee, (2) year established, (3) origin of committee, (4) number of members, (5) occupational representation, (6) selection of members, (7) internal committee, (8) frequency of meetings, (9) financial support, (10) method of operations, (11) functions, and (12) additional comments.

Another sort of organizational participatory study attempted to explore the significance of community organization for school support (Smith et al., 1964). Some of the findings were: (1) The level of support which a community accords its schools is related to the social organizational patterns of that community; (2) Support for schools is much more characteristic of formal group members, e.g., of the PTA, social clubs, and lunch organizations; (3) The significance of the disinterest and lower level of support among nongroup members increases when it is found that they are not in touch with other community members or with mass communication media; and (4) It is more difficult to change such disinterest even after it has been detected. These findings have important implications when considering present urban migration patterns, millage campaigns, attitudes toward formal organizations held by members of a community, and questions of local support versus a broader base of school support. Cunningham and Nystrand (1969) assessed new arrangements for citizen participation in urban school affairs within 13 cities. An attempt was made to identify the participants, who they represent, the forum for participation, the issues considered, the tactics used by participants, the sanctions available to participants, the success of the programs, and the strengths and weaknesses of the mechanisms as perceived by interested parties. Recommendations emerged encouraging the strengthening of existing linkages for citizen participation, and the need for new methods, especially to involve poor and minority groups in urban areas.

This review of research and studies on the public participatory activities has not been exhaustive, but focused on the exploration or survey of parent participation through various community advisory committees. In future research, attention must be given to developing new methods for increasing public participation, contributing to the improvement of children's education, and evaluating the effectiveness of the participatory programs or activities.

POLITICAL CONFIGURATION APPROACH

The political configuration approach to home-school-community relations views the school system as a political subsystem of the community social system, and concentrates on the interactive relationship between the school system and the community power structure. It starts with the analysis of community power structures and their influence in educational policy making, and includes a political response by the school system to the demands for community control of public schools. The objectives, specific activities, theoretical foundations, and research studies of the approach will be discussed below.

Objectives of the Approach

The political configuration approach to home-school-community relations aims at ensuring community support for education by intensifying the relations between community power structures and school systems and educational relevance to community needs.

The analysis of power structures within the community provides school administrators with insights into understanding political activity in an educational system, that is, how the process of authoritative allocation of values, resources, and power in the educational system can be influenced. Further attention is given to improvement of community attitudes toward educational support (Hoke et al., 1971) by means of involving citizens in the formulation of educational policies. When making educational decisions, administrators and boards cannot disregard pressure groups (Cockling, 1962). Five major types of pressure groups that attempt to influence the schools are religious organizations, commercial interests, private individuals, political organizations, and social organizations (Wilde, 1961). Assuming that the focal point of pressure groups is the administration, Price (1967) emphasizes that it ought to identify the decision-making processes in the school district, locate the pressure groups, and conscientiously and positively involve the community in school affairs.

There is also educational criticism and conflicting views of issues related to school systems. Five types of critics the board member may encounter are anxious mothers, pseudointellectuals, rabble rousers and the malcontent, "let's make it tough" critics, and intelligent, thoughtful citizens (Cunningham, 1962). Harmon (1969) examines conflicting views of public interests in terms of their being either individualistic or unitary, descriptive or prescriptive, procedural or substantive, dynamic or static. The resolution of these criticisms and conflicts between administrators and the public is an important aspect of the political configuration approach to home-school-community relations. Bowles and Fruth (1976) contend that the political objective of home-school-community relations programs is the resolution of actual or potential conflict among the various sub-publics which may be associated with policy decisions or administrative practices which determine (1) the use of available, scarce resources, (2) the value choices to be made regarding programs, and (3) the locus of power and governmental authority in the educational enterprise. The community control movement advocates returning "power to the people" (Cronin, 1973) and the redistribution of power (Hagood, 1969; Gittell, 1974). It attempts to improve the financing and effectiveness of inner-city schools (Levin, 1969).

Specific Programs and Activities

As previously indicated, school administrators must analyze and understand power and public leadership within the community. For this purpose various methods have been used, including one or more of the following five (Bell, Hill, & Wright, 1961): positional or formal leadership, reputational or nominal leadership, social participation, influence or opinion leadership, and decision making or event analysis. Reviewing the research on community

power structure and its relationship to educational decision making, Cane suggested that community power studies could be based on extensive use of issue analysis, newspaper reading, scrutiny of public documents, and personal observation in addition to reputational and pluralistic approaches. Besides these methods, Vidich and Bensman (1968) emphasized participant observation as a source of data and as a basis for giving them meaning (p. 50). The exploratory, or field study, method (Kerlinger, 1964; Ianaccone, 1974) has also been suggested for analysis of a community power structure.

The analysis and understanding of community power structures is necessary to but not sufficient for achieving political support for education. Administrators should be educational statesmen in dealing with inflences on policy making. In order to influence the formal and informal power structure within the community, the following three steps have been proposed (Dykes, 1963): (1) identify the community leaders, (2) educate the informal leaders to the needs of the schools, and (3) be the community's educational leader with professional competence and dedication.

With regard to pressure groups in education, Wilson (1964) recommended an annual board meeting, prohibiting all parents from entering school premises, and general adherence to a "professional" perspective. For school systems responding to the pressures generated by professional, student, and community client systems, Cunningham (1969) suggested the following three approaches: (1) opening up the decision-making processes and becoming more capable of dealing with problems of client system linkages, (2) decision oriented inquiry relevant to many interests but especially to those of the formal policy-makers, and (3) a mixed-scanning approach to decision making, so labeled by Etzioni, which states that fundamental decisions ought to be based on essentially rational processes, but item or bit decisions can be made incrementally within the layer framework of fundamental decisions.

Davis (1965) listed practical techniques for coping with critics, including the preparation of fact sheets and replies, staging debates, bringing in outside speakers, adoption of written board policies, and creation of committees. Havighurst (1968a) criticized the new critics of education and their bases of attack on urban schools. He emphasized, however, that the solution to criticism lies not in criticism of the critics but in active participation of agents of change to effectively implement programs with valid and secure evaluation systems. Against many school-related confrontations, Unruh (1969) contended that the new board member must learn the art of dealing with confrontation. According to him, the board must first develop a comprehensive communications system, support it, and continuously use it. It must also provide for resident participation in the discussion of problems and issues and competent leadership for such discussion, select a "blue ribbon" committee which would in turn select an outside team to evaluate the entirety of the school system, and arrange confrontations between conflicting community groups, and between legislators and citizens. By focusing on conflicting views of the concept of public interest, Harmon (1969) characterized five administrative styles based on a two-dimensional grid of responsiveness and the extent of policy

advocacy which administrators hold. They are survival oriented, rationalistic, prescriptive, reactive, and proactive. He concluded that the fusion of advocacy and responsiveness cannot be guaranteed in every instance but that the proactive style at least increases its probability.

Furthermore, political responses are demanded by the school system to political issues and demonstrations in education (AASA, 1970). Educational decisions in the policy process are critical and bring about conflict where there are large differences between the school and the community. Particularly relevant to home-school-community relations are the four modes of conflict resolution adapted from March and Simon. They are (1) the rational decision process, in which the participants work together for the achievement of their common objectives, (2) persuasion, in which the participants enter into the process of resolution with differences but where the differences are not sufficiently intense to preclude change, (3) bargaining, which is employed when the goals of participants are both different and unchangeable but negotiable; and (4) power play, which is employed when the goals of participants are not only different but also unchangeable and not negotiable (Bowles & Fruth, 1976).

Thus, home-school-community relations programs, in the political context, are concerned with analyzing and understanding community power structures and their influence on educational policy making. Major activities are characterized by political responses to pressure groups, critics, and conflict in the educational policy-making process.

Theoretical Foundations

The political configuration approach to home-school-community relations regards the policy-making process as a focal point. The political process consists of four phases: initiation, information, accommodation, and legitimation (Bowles, 1971). For analytical purposes a political model has been proposed, consisting of social structure, interest articulation, legislation, formulation of policy, and execution of policy (Baldridge, 1971). Relevant to this political process are the political systems theory, community power theories related to educational policy making, and conflict theories.

Political Systems Theory. Easton is given credit for developing the political systems theory. His analytical model of a political system (1965) involves demands and supports as inputs, a black box in which these inputs are manipulated, and decisions and actions as outputs. According to his dynamic response model, a political system receives inputs from the intra- and extra-societal environment, converts these inputs into outputs, and a feedback loop relates outputs to the total environment. In the Milton school district study, Moynihan (1973) adopted the Easton model for exploring the nature of the decision-making process, the influence structure in relation to curricular and instructional change, the system's role, and the curricular and instructional output of the system. Following Easton's political systems model, Gaynor (1971) attempted to close the "theory-practice gap" in generating and evaluating alternative solutions to the political problems of local school systems.

In contrast to the traditional human relations approach, Baldridge (1972) proposed a political systems approach to organizational change. He contended that a major part of a political systems approach is the development of political strategies and the generation of political conditions for the support of organizational goals. Scribner (1970) viewed the political systems approach as a useful conceptual device for analyzing the political life of a school system as well as for describing the political realities of educational reform in the school system. Applying the political systems approach to the analysis of political demand for educational reform, he identified five major variables: (1) social and physical characteristics of the environment, (2) political inputs (demands), (3) internal characteristics of the authoritative decision-making agency, (4) political system outputs, and (5) environmental response to the outputs, with consideration of interrelationships.

Community Power Theory. Goldhamer contributed toward the conceptualization of individual power. In his view (1939), power is influence over the behavior of others, and three major forms of power are distinguished: force, domination, and manipulation. Further, it is classified by the subordinated individuals' recognition of its legitimacy into legal, traditional, and charismatic power; by types of motivation for obedience or disobedience behavior into instrumental and noninstrumental power; and by the consequences of disobedience into substitute power and sanction.

The study of community power structures has been developed in Hunter's reputational approach (1953) and Dahl's pluralistic approach (1961). Spinrad (1965) supported a pluralistic interpretation of American community power, which he said is wide-spread in relevant community decision making, yet concluded that although many groups may have an effect on what is decided, the directing leadership comes from some combination of particular business groups, local government, and professional experts. Relative to the determination of community influence configurations, an interdisciplinary framework was developed for the study of community power (Carver & Crowe, 1969). The framework indicated community population, media characteristics, and the structure and nature of the economic and political institutions as key determinants of the particular structure of power in the community. Viewing power as a property of interorganizational ties, which can be described in terms of resource networks, Perrucci and Pilisuk (1970) discussed the interorganizational bases of community power. According to them, the creation of these resource networks is found in the interactions of executives with multiple organizational positions. When resource networks are used as the unit of analysis, persons identified as influential can be viewed as research sources, thereby reducing dependence on methodologies using coincidence of persons at the measure of power.

Based on the concept of differentiated community, a series of propositions was developed by Clark (1967) relating tendencies toward different types of power structures with crucial community variables including basic demographic variables, adaptation, goal-attainment, integration, and latent pattern. A total of 34 propositions were presented, stating a relationship between each of the community variables and the different power structures on a pluralistic-monolithic continuum. Reviewing the literature dealing with community power and influence, Rogers (1971)

proposed 43 hypotheses stating the relationships of demographic, economic, political, associational, and other variables with the types of power structures which are characterized by elitist or pluralistic influences.

The community power theory extends to community decisions, defined as "choices among alternative lines of action directed at affecting community-wide institutions [Rossi, 1957, p. 416]." According to Rossi, there are three major approaches to empirical research on community decision making: the decision-maker approach, the partisan approach, and the process approach. Using specific cases of community issues, Crain and Rosenthal (1967) examined the relationship of the socioeconomic status of the community population to the decision-making process. The relationship was found to be curvilinear at the extreme upper end of the distribution; very high status cities demonstrated a rather tightly organized and potent decision-making structure compared to low status cities. From a review of literature concerning community decision making as a social action in relation to the community power structure, March (1964) found some validity in two controversial views of community power, and proposed some assumptions to be explored in examining the relationships between the community power structure and decision making. Clark (1968) reported on a very extensive systematic investigation of community decision making done in 51 communities of varying sizes and dimensions throughout the United States. The findings supported a general statement of correlation: the greater the horizontal and vertical differentiation in a social system, the greater the differentiation between potential elites, the more decentralized the decision-making structure, and, without the establishment of integrative mechanisms, the less coordination between sectors and the lower the level of output.

There are some theoretical foundations for explaining the relationship between the community power structure and educational decision making. First of all, it is assumed that "education is much too important to be left in the hands of educators," and "it is much, much too important to be left at the mercy of the political arena [Beggs, 1967, p. 4]." Drawing attention to power struggles in the educational power domain, Turner (1970) proposes two basic approaches to mobilizing political power for educational ends: the behind-the-scenes action for identification of political power holders and issues receiving top priority, and development of the largest solitary group. Meranto (1970) calls attention to three forces demanding reallocation of power in the governance of schools. They are the unionization and growing militancy of teachers, the civil rights fights over school desegregation, and the quest for black power as it relates to neighborhood control of schools. Within the community politics of the school system, Minar (1967) draws the conclusion that as a part of the community political system, school boards must face the responsibility of knowing more about many things, including the limits and ambiguities of their own positions in the world.

In relating the community power structure to the governance of the school system, more solid theoretical bases have been developed. Rejecting the traditional class method of power investigation and the monolithic power structure, Lutz (1965) gives a model for classifying available data on power structures by the concepts of "points of tangency," "interaction,"

and "sentiments," as well as for predicting possible power shifts. Referring to general systems theory, the model emphasizes continued assessment points of tangency and their inputs and outputs, and the relationship of these subsystems to the total system.

McCarty and Ramsey (1971) developed a model for explaining the relationships among the community power structure, the school board, and the superintendent. According to this model, in the dominated community and board the superintendent must play the role of functionary, while in the factional community and board he must work with the majority as a political strategist. In a community with a pluralistic power structure and a status-congruent board, the superintendent is expected to give professional advice, but in a community with an inert power structure and a sanctioning board he has to initiate action as a decision maker. Using this model, the effect of community power structures upon the tenure of school administrators has been explained (McCarty, 1964). This model has also been proven to be an adequate basis for the discovery of theoretically important differences between school districts (Hickcox, 1967). Aside from the awareness of the formal influences on educational policy, Wayson (1970) argued that board members should recognize the informal influences bearing upon educational policy making, so that they can be in a better position to utilize their forces for desirable ends.

Consensus and Conflict Theory. Horowitz (1962) discussed consensus, conflict, and cooperation theory in the context of sociological research. It was argued that "both consensus and conflict are phenomena which may promote or retard social operation or political cohesio; [p. 180];" consensus and conflict are logically distinguished from the general theory of cooperation, showing, in particular, that consensus and cooperation do not imply each other's existence. The argument for the study of conflict as well as consensus or cooperation in a complex organization is implicit in conducting research on educational change within the school community as a social system. Based on the idea that both bureaucratic organizations and primary community groups are essential for performing most tasks in our society, a balance theory of coordination between the two was developed by Litwak and Meyer (1966). The theory confirmed the idea that social control and goal achievement are accomplished through joint contributions from both types of social forms, and that optimal control and achievement will be obtained when these forms are in balance. This balance theory of coordinating mechanisms between bureaucratic and primary forms of social organizations is suggestive for developing political programs for home-school-community relations.

Examining racial problems, Henderson (1964) outlined four conditions of minority status: pluralism--side-by-side with the majority, assimilation into the majority, separationism, and militantism or attempts to overthrow the majority. Understanding of this conflict model is assumed to enhance the possibility of conflict resolution and to reduce the tendency to praise or blame. In a case study of Levitton, New Jersey, Gans (1967) looked at the conflict implicit in the relationship between a conservative school system within a cosmopolitan community. He indicated the necessity for examining separately the nature of the school system and the nature of the community. The concept "zone of tolerance" provides insights into

resolving conflicts derived from contrasting basic value orientations between school systems, and communities. March and Simon (1967) indicated that an organization reacts to conflict with four major processes: problem solving or rational search, persuasion, bargaining, and politics or political power plays. According to March and Simon, the term conflict is applied to the "breakdown in the standard mechanisms of decision making so that an individual or group experiences difficulty in selecting an action alternative [p. 112]." Therefore, it can be said that the four processes represent various styles of decision making and a series of techniques for resolving conflict in policy decisions.

Thus, the political systems theory, community power theory, and conflict theory are applicable to the development of political programs in home-school-community relations. Furthermore, research studies on home-school-community relations programs from the political perspective provide theoretical bases for improving the practices.

Research and Studies

Research and studies on political activities in home-school-community relations are reviewed in three categories: the school system as a political system, community power structure and educational decision making, and conflict resolution.

The School System as a Political System. A significant method for systematically analyzing the behavior of school boards was proposed by Scribner (1966), who used a political system theory. The system comprised four major operational categories: inputs (demands and supports), outputs, political function, and governmental functions. A socio-historical study of education in a complex community (Havighurst et al., 1968b) indicated that the public schools are an important element in the local politics of Chicago, and that they have been influential both in educational policy and receiving financial support from the businessmen of the community. In allocating resources for the support of public education in large cities, James, Kelly, and Garms (1966) found that the ability-demand variables explained 71 percent of the variations in educational expenditures. In a similar study, socioeconomic variables were found to be more influential than political variables in shaping educational policy in the 50 states (Dye, 1967).

Studies on school systems governance identified some characteristics of boards and superintendents. In school districts where superintendents' contracts had been terminated by cash settlement, Seeley (1964) found that boards were less likely to have established policy manuals and orderly processes; and superintendents were more likely to be arbitrary in their behavior, have poor personal and public relations, less training for their jobs, or were simply incompetent to handle their jobs. In a study of superintendent turnover relating to the political stability of the school district, Walden (1967) found a significant relationship between superintendent turnover and school board incumbent defeat. Jennings and Zeigler (1970) analyzed the response styles of school boards by interviewing all members of 52 boards throughout the country, with regard to socio-political complexity, district harmony and the electoral process. It

was concluded that the less complex the district and the higher the mass support, the more responsive the board of education to individual preferences. Against the assumption that groups perform the function of mediating between the individual and his government, and that response by elected officials will be to the demands of the organized public, the study assumed that the desirability of one mode over another in a representational sense would be determined by the criteria for desirability and the territorial scope of school districts.

An exploration of the political process for school bond issues (Miskel et al., 1971) tested the hypothesis that the activity, interaction, and sentiment levels of the board of education members and community leaders would be significantly higher in districts where a bond issue had passed than where it had failed. Using a reputational technique, 10 community leaders were identified in two districts which had failed to pass a bond referendum. The board members, the superintendent, and the 10 community leaders in each district were interviewed. Content analysis of the data indicated that the activity and interaction levels of the community leaders were similar in all districts. The interaction level of the board members was significantly higher where the bond issues had passed. The prediction of a lower level of sentiment toward the superintendents and education boards where the bond issues had failed was supported. Viewing the fact that only 29 percent of local requests for additional school funds have been approved over the past ten years in Ohio, Hoyle and Wiley (1971) attempted to answer a key question: Had the voters refused additional local funds because of excessive property taxes or because of lost confidence in the schools? The result confirmed that "in Ohio, at least, levies are failing because of excessive property taxes, not because people are dissatisfied with the schools [p. 49]."

Community Power Structure and Educational Decision Making. Applying scaling and image-analysis techniques, Dick (1960) developed a new method of ranking influential community members along a single dimension. A longitudinal field study (Barnes, 1961) examined the informal relationships by which leaders interested in the school influenced the development of educational policy in an Oregon community. Those who were recognized as being involved in local school matters belonged to one of four informal categories: the businessmen, long politically dominant in the community, and concerned with the financial management of the school districts; young professionals concerned with improving municipal services; a group of several friends, almost all school-district officials, who hunted and fished together; and the local newspaper editor. Using a more sophisticated method of ranking influential groups, Longstreth (1966) identified the persons to whom the educator should pay special attention. The lists of potentially influential groups were compared with each other by the "efficiency rank," which was determined by totaling each group's rating in three scales-- accuracy ratio, identification ratio, and selection effectiveness ratio. As a result, 15 groups appeared in the efficiency rank order as follows: (1) news media, (2) banking and finance, (3) Chamber of Commerce, (4) women leaders, (5) health, (6) law, (7) general business, (8) partisan politics, (9) farm, (10) general government, (11) county commission, (12) religion, (13) education, (14) labor, and (15) Negroes. Even though there are considerable variations among the groups, the findings would be beneficial to the professional educator in discerning community influences, near the top of the efficiency ranking.

Goldhammer (1965) analyzed the power structure of two school districts matched on selected social climate factors, but differing in school financial effort. Although no causal relationships were found, it was emphasized that the elements of community power systems should not be disregarded in explaining the differences in educational policies. Using a combination of reputational and issue-analysis techniques to identify the top leaders in selected community organizations, Dilks (1965) found that the overlap of the leadership structure in the high effort district was more than twice that of the low effort district. In a similar study of six Florida school districts, Marsh (1965) identified differences in power characteristics between districts of high effort and those of low effort. That is, closed systems (monopolistic elite and multigroup noncompetitive) tended to be associated with low effort and the more open systems (competitive elite and segmented pluralism) with high effort. Using a reputational approach, Harper (1965) examined the power structure as related to bond elections, and concluded that power structure can play a significant role in school bond elections and be predicted by sampling the power structure within the district.

With concentration on the adoption of the Individually Guided Education (IGE) program by the school system, Miles (1975) conducted four exploratory field studies on home-school-community relations as a political process. The case studies analyzed the policy process (initiation, information, accomodation, and acceptance) in relation to the "zone of tolerance" (McGivney and Moynihan, 1972) and four types of community power structures (inert, dominated, pluralist, and factional) proposed by McCarty and Ramsey. Klenke (1975) attempted to analyze the interrelationships between the characteristics of the multiunit school and the instructional programing model in terms of the allocations of power, economic resources, and values. These two studies provide the researcher and practitioner with useful frameworks for analyzing home-school-community relations as a political process in the IGE school.

Conflict Resolution. Research on school-community conflict has been concerned with analysis of the conflict situation and its resolution or management in the school system. Nussel (1964) tested the hypothesis that school-community conflict is essential in a democratic society. The results indicated that conflict should be avoided in school-community relations because of the resultant intergroup cleavage, animosity, and residual bitterness. Minar (1966) identified community characteristics concomitant to electoral conflict. Communities with higher educational and occupational levels were found to have lower levels of dissent, the implication being that communities with low conflict possess conflict-management skills and facilitating attitudes. A study of community resources and propensity for conflict (Snow, 1967) drew two conclusions: community resource levels and propensity for conflict influence administrative roles directly or indirectly, and the different degrees of success in school-community relations provide an opportunity to consider the role played by the individual superintendent's administrative and leadership ability. Snow found that community resources and conflict constrain the local school administrator's roles, but the constraints can be overcome by the administrator's ability. In order to hypothesize about the generality of system-conflict phenomena, Belasco et al. (1970) observed potential conflict over control of education. From a ques-

tionaire survey, they found a potential for sharp conflict between environmental community groups and the internal professional staff concerning power distribution. The largest differences concerned economic issues.

Konrad (1966) found that social status was a good indicator of a community's ability to manage conflict within a school system. However, no evidence was found that members of school boards in conflict were of any different social status than members in those that were not. The California school board recall election was examined as a mechanism for the resolution of community conflict (Kelly, 1967). It was found that conflict intensity was significantly higher during the pre-recall and the recall period itself than at the start of the recall campaign, and that the campaign polarized the community and prolonged the conflict long after it would otherwise have been forgotten. In a study designed to explore the relationship between the Puerto Rican community of Milwaukee, Wisconsin, and the public elementary schools serving Puerto Rican children, Moser (1973) analyzed the community's demands relative to four processes of conflict resolution: rational search, persuasion, bargaining, and power politics. The 25 demands were examined via a comparative analysis of what was at stake in relation to the power, resource, and value disposition for all subpublics and community influentials within each demand (p. 246).

The findings discussed above were derived from research studies on the school system as a political system, community power structures and their influence in educational decision making, and conflict resolution. They provide local school administrators with significant implications for developing a home-school-community relations program to deal with community power structures and influentials, and to receive appropriate support for education from the community.

SUMMARY

The three major approaches to the improvement of home-school-community relations have been described in terms of objectives, specific programs or activities, theoretical foundations, and research and studies. The ultimate goal of home-school-community relations is to improve children's education and welfare in schools through understanding of, and support for, education between home and school or school and community. To reach both this general goal, and more specific ones, each of the approaches has different but related objectives and specific programs. Research studies using various methods based on appropriate theoretical foundations are being conducted. The characteristics of the functional, participatory, and political approaches are summarized in Table 1.

TABLE 1

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE ADMINISTRATIVE-FUNCTIONAL, PUBLIC-PARTICIPATORY, AND POLITICAL CONFIGURATION APPROACHES TO HOME-SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

	APPROACHES		
Characteristics	Administrative-Functional	Public Participatory	Political Configuration
1. Objectives	•To increase information exchange between the school and the public	•To strengthen partnership of the public with the school personnel	•To increase political support for education from the community
2. Programs or Activities	•Public relations programs •Community survey and information system •Communication programs	•Individual-based participation •Organized participatory activities	•Analysis of community power structures •Political responses to educational issues •Resolution of conflicts
3. Theoretical Foundations	•Principles or theories of -public relations -information flow -educational value-orientation and attitudes	•Principles or theories of -cooperation -community linkages -participatory activities -advisory activities	•Political systems theory •Community power theory •Conflict theory
4. Research	•Research in school public relations •Community surveys and studies •Research on communication between the school and the public	•Studies of parent or citizen participation •Research on advisory committees	•Research studies on -the school system as a political system -community power and educational decision-making -conflict resolution

IV

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

This section describes some implications for improving home-school-community relations, and draws conclusions in terms of theory development, research, and practices.

IMPLICATIONS FOR IMPROVING HOME-SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

Based on the literature on home-school-community relations, some implications can be drawn for building home-school-community relations models, conducting further research studies, improving home-school-community relations, and developing personnel training programs for home-school-community relations.

Building a Model for Home-School-Community Relations

In a recent book, Saxe (1975) deals with six specific areas of community relations: (1) identifying pressure groups and community power structures, (2) assessing the needs and desires of a community, (3) determining local community resources, (4) two-way communication, (5) public relations, and (6) involving communities and citizens in the business of their schools. These specific areas would be categorized into the political (1), functional (2, 3, 4, 5), and participatory (6) approach as conceptualized in this paper. Saxe views the administrator as "the man in the middle" because he finds himself between two legitimate demands: the teachers' demand for professional authority to determine methods of teaching, pupil relations, assessment, etc., and parental and community demands for the democratic right to influence the processes and participate in the governance of "their" schools (p. 36). The role of the superintendent and the principal, as men in the middle, is represented in Figures 1 and 2. These figures depict the administrator's interaction with the elements of the school and the community.

Based on the multiunit school organization as developed by the Wisconsin Research & Development Center for Cognitive Learning, Bowles and Fruth (1976) developed a home-school-community relations model for Individually Guided Education (IGE) as shown in Figure 3. The model consists of four primary interaction patterns and four functional competencies.

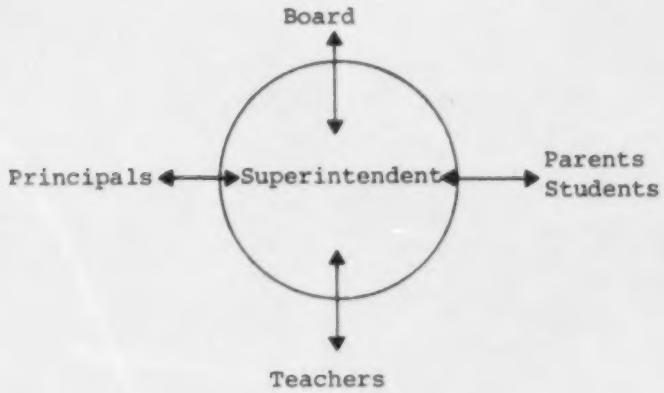

Figure 1. The superintendent as man in the middle.

Taken from Saxe, 1975, p. 40.

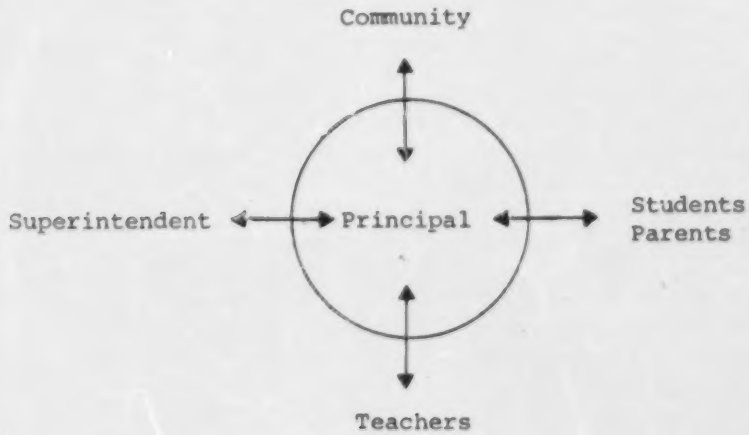

Figure 2. The principal as man in the middle.

Taken from Saxe, 1975, p. 44.

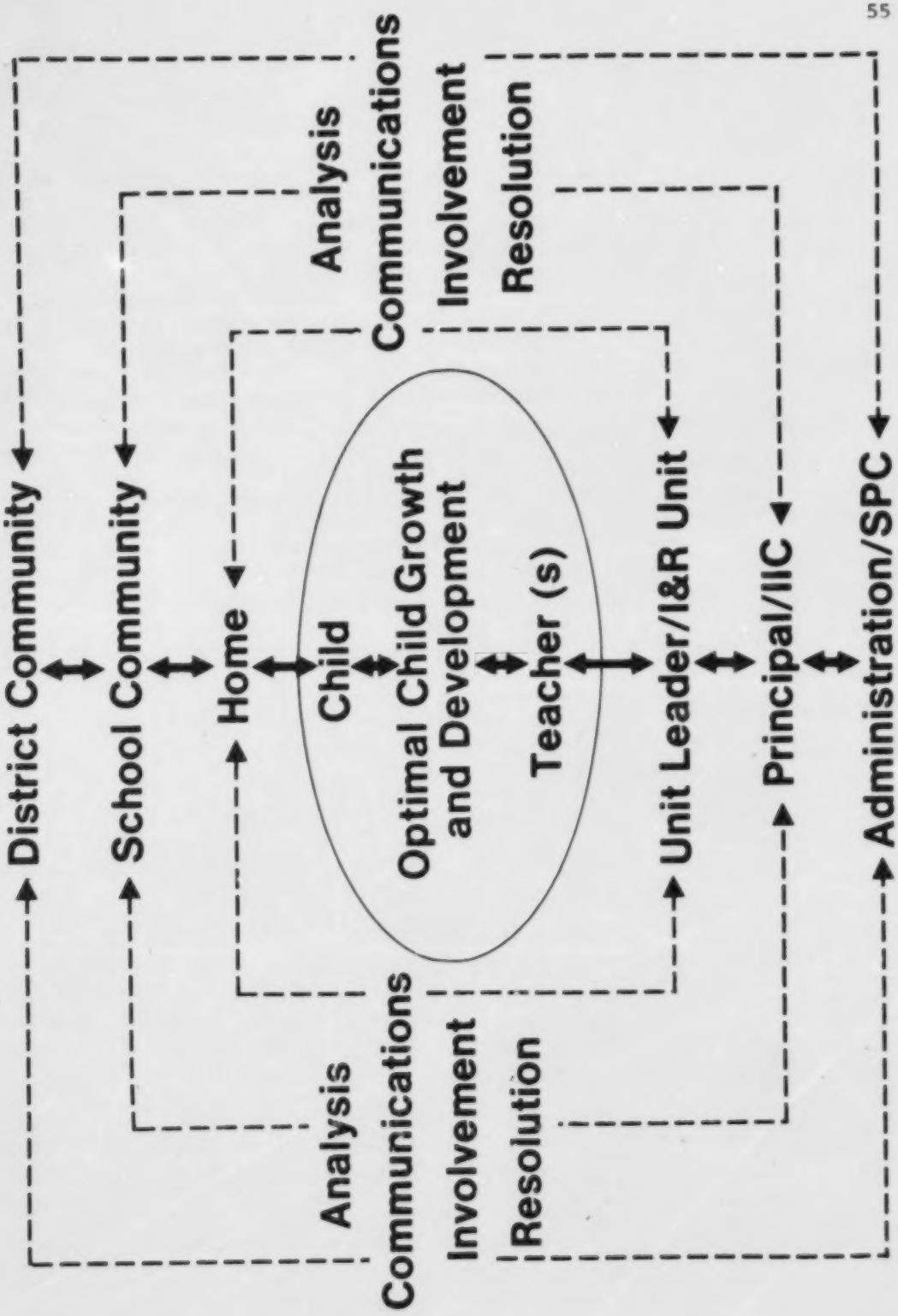

Figure 3. Home-school-community relations model for IGE.

Taken from Bowles and Fruth, 1976, p. 171.

The primary interaction patterns are (1) child and teacher(s), (2) home and unit leader or instruction and research unit, (3) school community and principal or instructional improvement committee (IIC) and (4) district community and board, superintendent or systemwide program committee. The functional competencies are (1) analysis of educational issues and participant sub-publics; (2) one-way and two-way communication using various vehicles; (3) involvement of various sub-publics; and (4) resolution of actual or potential conflict in allocating resources, values, and powers. Using this two-dimensional model, the authors describe the role and functions of the principal and the unit leader in improving home-school-community relations. By combining the implementation process of the IGE program--awareness, commitment, changeover, refinement, and self renewal--into these two dimensions, a tri-dimensional model can be made for the analysis of home-school-community relations in IGE implementation (see Figure 4). Each of the boxes provides an analytical tool for exploring the functional relations between the different interaction levels at different stages of IGE implementation.

Using a political scheme of "who and for whom," "what for," and "how" between the community and the school system, a political systems model for home-school-community relations as presented in Figure 5 is proposed. That is, the input-output relationships and their control mechanism concepts are added to the basic model developed by Bowles and Fruth (1976). In the political systems model, the community inputs to the school system include individual needs, social values, economic resources, and political power, which relate to the development of instructional programs for their children. The supplies and changes that are the outputs of the school system are transferred to inputs for the community.

Other important aspects of the proposed model are the input-output control mechanisms between the community and the school system. Both of the two parts have their own policy-decisional mechanisms controlling the respective inputs and outputs through functional competencies and evaluating mechanisms. This political systems model assumes that favorable home-school-community relations would be maintained and coordinated through the control mechanisms of the input-output components between the school system and the community. It reveals a comprehensive and dynamic aspect of home-school-community relations. However, the model is tentative and must be considered as being at the initial stage of its development. More effort must be given to detailing and verifying it on the basis of relevant theory and empirical studies.

Conducting Further Research Studies

A great number of research studies have been done on home-school-community relations but without systematic coordination. The three approaches developed in this paper could serve as guides for classifying available research studies. Research is sorely needed on adapting theories or models developed in other professional disciplines, and in building new models for home-school-community relations as well as verifying existing ones.

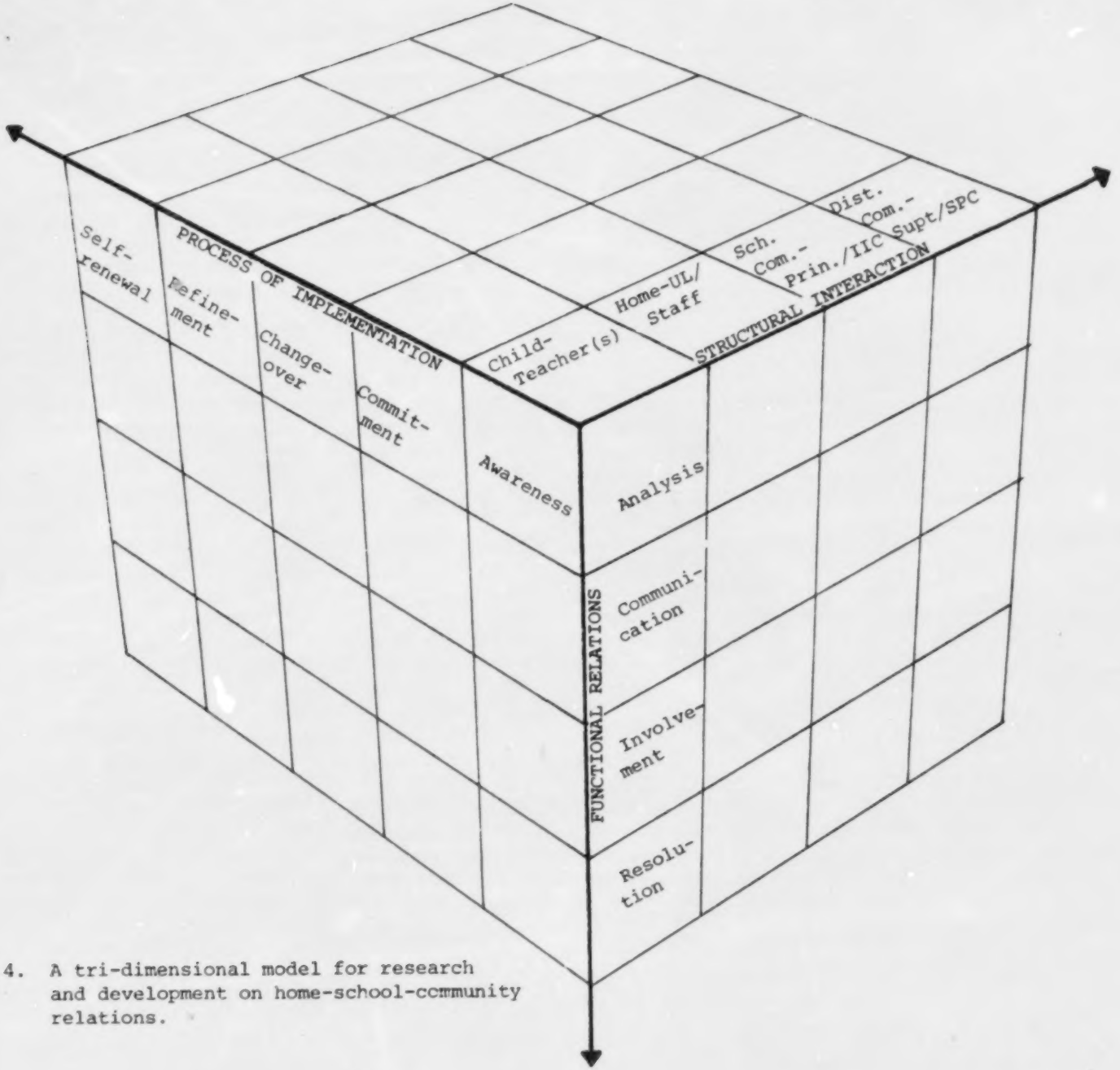

Figure 4. A tri-dimensional model for research and development on home-school-community relations.

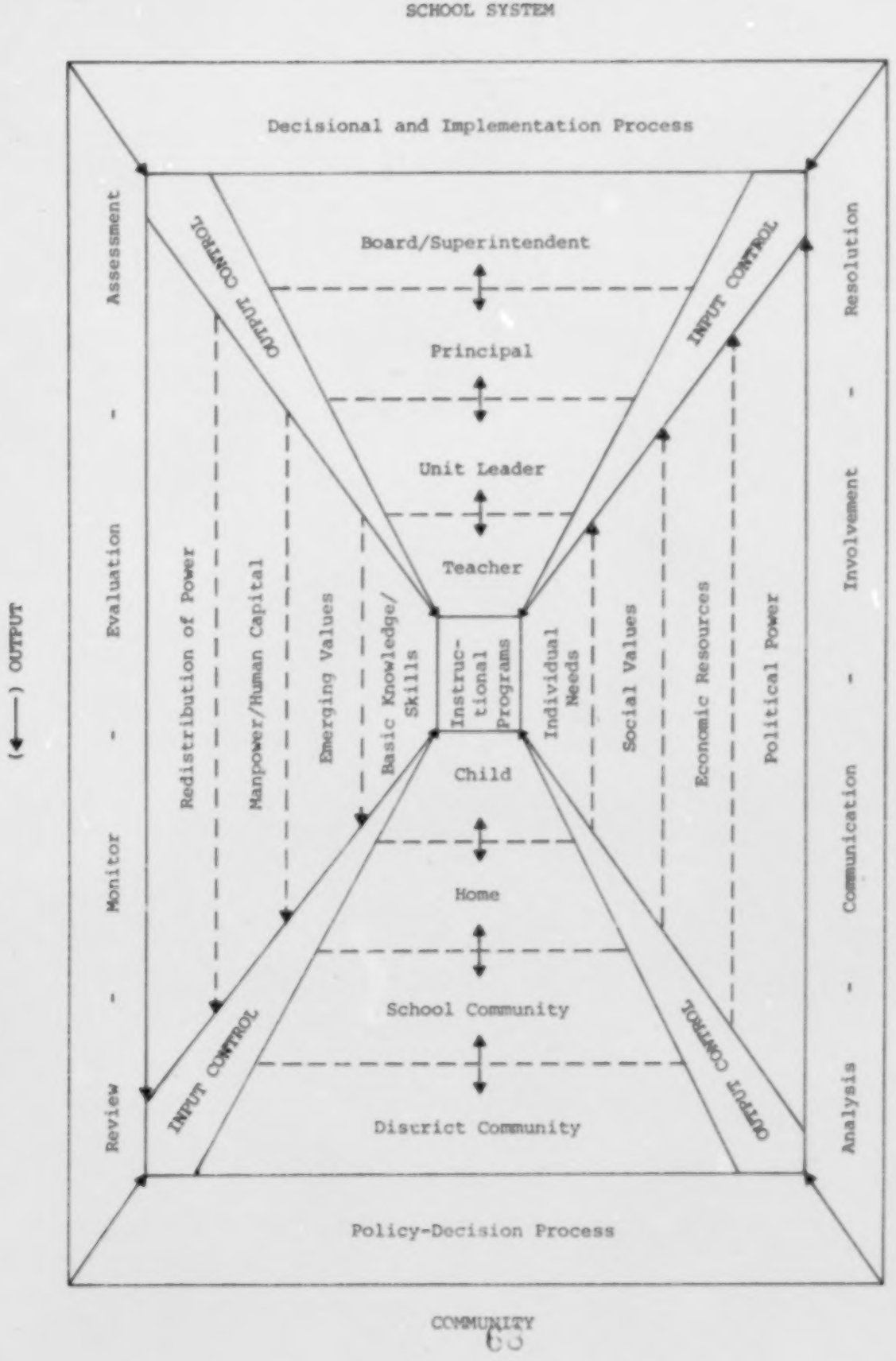

Figure 5. A political systems model for home-school-community relations.

Most studies have been oriented toward collecting professional opinions on the value of programs and describing a set of circumstances related to home-school-community relations at a particular place and time. In future research, greater efforts are needed for creating useful programs based on unified theories of home-school-community relations models. Under one general framework, a comprehensive study should be conducted piece by piece or step by step in evaluating the effectiveness of emerging programs and generalizing findings into a theoretical base for the purpose of creating new programs.

Improving Home-School-Community Relations

The literature reviewed reveals many attempts at improving home-school-community relations practices. However, most specific programs are too practice-oriented and cookbook-styled, on a "trial and error" basis. In developing home-school-community relations programs for practical use, administrators may need technical support from the concerned professions. They should also be careful, when adapting emerging programs, to consider the characteristics of their school system and the surrounding community. In school-initiated or school and community joint program development, a comprehensive plan should be prepared for home-school-community relations with short and long-range objectives. The comprehensive programs should not be temporary but continuous, and always available to prevent crisis or conflict between the school and the community.

The field of home-school-community relations continues to grow as an emerging area of concern in practice as well as in academic interest. Accordingly, in implementing an effective home-school-community relations program, teachers and administrators must be equipped with appropriate techniques for contacting and involving parents and other citizens concerned with children's education. In certain cases, a professionally trained staff should be hired with accountability to the school administrator and to the community. There is an especially acute need for home-school-community relations personnel to function as a bridge between the two in large and complex urban school systems.

Developing Teacher/Administrator Training Programs for Home-School-Community Relations

In response to the need for home-school-community relations, emphasis is being given to training teachers, unit leaders, and administrators. Stiles (1968) indicated that administrators and teachers are not prepared for the role of good public relations people, and that the failure to train administrators for effective public relations often results in their dismissal. Under such circumstances, in-service workshops on school-community relations should be considered. One such workshop, with emphasis on parent-community involvement, was conducted for principals, educational specialists, and superintendents on a Navajo Indian reservation, and a list of suggestions was made for school personnel and school board members for involving parents and the community in the schools (Office of Education, 1969).

There are also some attempts to provide for pre-service training programs relating to home-school-community relations. Assuming that teachers must be prepared for work with parents before they start teaching, Safran (1974) proposes a model for the task of developing such competencies. The model lists seven abilities that teachers must demonstrate: (1) understanding and overcoming the barriers to open communications, (2) engaging in one-to-one communication with parents in a variety of settings, (3) interpreting various educational and institutional practices to parents, (4) defining specific meaningful tasks for parents, (5) bringing individual parents together in resolving common problems, (6) developing the leadership skills of parent groups, and (7) assisting parents in comprehending the nature of educational systems. An example of an administrators' pre-service training is a course on home-school-community relations offered by the Department of Educational Administration, University of Wisconsin-Madison. The three previously developed approaches are expected to provide guidelines in developing comprehensive training programs on home-school-community relations for prospective teachers and administrators.

CONCLUSION

This literature review has attempted to define what home-school-community relations are, and to conceptualize three major approaches available for improving home-school-community relations practices. Further suggestions have been made for future study. The following three conclusions are drawn from the discussion:

1. The home-school-community relations concept encompasses a variety of features, such as parent participation, administrators' public relations function, and a political process. It can be operationally defined as reciprocal relations between home and school, or school and community, externally as well as internally, and in both horizontal and vertical dimensions. The main consideration here is on external and horizontal relationships between the school and the public within the community. As a consequence, home-school-community relations activities are conceptualized as developmental in nature from functional, participatory, and political perspectives.
2. The development of theory and practices in the field of home-school-community relations provides insights into understanding three major approaches available for the improvement of home-school-community relations practices. The administrative-function, public-participatory, and political configuration approaches can be distinguished in terms of objectives, specific programs, theoretical foundations, and research studies. Each of the three approaches has different but interrelated objectives and specific programs for their achievement. Research studies are conducted, based on related theoretical foundations to the approach.

3. The classification of the three major approaches provides guidelines in developing theory, research, and practices of home-school-community relations. As a comprehensive framework, the proposed political systems model for home-school-community relations is expected to be verified by further empirical studies, and to be used as a guide for future home-school-community relations development.

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